Compendium of History

REVISED EDITION

168 The Crusades.

178 Results of crusades

445 Discovery of the New World

Climb though the rocks
be rugged.

Esther Marks

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COMPENDIUM OF HISTORY

Ancient and Modern

By M. J. KERNEY, A.M.

REVISED AND ENLARGED

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PUBLISHERS' PREFACE

THE present edition of this *Compendium* has been very carefully revised throughout, and has been brought down to the beginning of the year 1909. New illustrations have been introduced, and there have been added twenty colored maps. Its utility has been further increased by the addition of a good index. The other parts of the *Compendium* have been made to harmonize with the results of the most recent historical scholarship. Nevertheless, the publishers are aware that with all the conclusions which have been adopted, some competent authorities do not agree. However, until more unquestioned testimony shall have been discovered, the opinions expressed in the text must be allowed to stand.

When it is said that the work has been completely revised, the observation does not extend to the prepared questions on every page. In many of the very latest text-books on history no printed questions are admitted. In this edition of the *Compendium* they are retained, in response to a very general request from teachers who have been using the older work. Those instructors who prefer to formulate their own questions will not object to such aids. If they do not need these hints, they can regard this feature of the book as merely a harmless survival.

Perhaps it should be added that there has been no attempt to include in the new paragraphs every interesting, or even every important event that has occurred since 1901. Only those have been added which appear to be of universal interest and permanent value. Even these have added materially to the bulk of the volume. An ample narrative concerning a score of events will be found of more worth than the most elegant general allusions to a hundred miscellaneous topics. Whatever may be true of other sciences, no valuable information can be obtained in history from an acquaintance with a mere succession of names and dates.

As to the new matter, attention is invited to the section on Japan, the youngest of the great world powers. The continuation also attempts to show the position in the world and the influence of Germany. In recent French history only one

topic has been noticed, *viz.*, the attitude of that republic toward the Catholic Church. Franco-German relations have been examined under the the head of Morocco. The spread of social democracy, and its chief aims, are considered in discussing the recent history of Belgium, Switzerland, and Germany. The progressive policy of Great Britain appears in the passage of a Land Purchase Act for Ireland, and a law for old-age pensions for the United Kingdom. The tendency toward one confederation for that Empire is seen in the Australasian federation, as well as in the proposed commonwealth for South Africa. Our own history is brought down to the present special session of Congress, but, as in the case of other countries, only great and enduring questions are considered. For example, the continuation gives a fair summary of the successive steps toward the erection of the new State of Panama. Other policies of President Roosevelt, as well as our relations with Japan, are more briefly examined.

There has been a constant endeavor to make this edition of the *Compendium* an attractive, accurate, and impartial epitome of history. In this effort, we believe that we have met with almost perfect success.

Baltimore, Md., June 21, 1909.

CONTENTS

Book I

PAGE

INTRODUCTION—The Sources and Divisions of History 1

ANCIENT HISTORY

SACRED HISTORY

CHAP.

I—The Creation of the World—The Creation of Man—The Deluge —The Tower of Babel—The Dispersion of Mankind 4

II—The Early History of the Jews, until their Deliverance from Egypt 9

III—The Government of the Judges—The Regal Government—The Restoration of the Jews from Captivity 16

IV—From the Restoration of the Jews to their Native Country to the Destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans 22

Book II—The Great Empires of Antiquity

I—A Glance at Assyria and Babylon 31

II—The Persian Empire 35

III—The Phœnicians 38

IV—Egypt 39

V—Manners and Customs of the Egyptians 42

VI—Pyramids, Labyrinth, Lake of Mœris 44

Book III—Greece

I—Glances at Early Greek History 47

II—The Fabulous and Heroic Ages 49

III—Republic of Sparta 51

IV—Republic of Athens 53

V—From the Invasion of Greece by the Persians, to the Peloponnesian War 55

VI—From the beginning of the Peloponnesian War to the Reign of Philip of Macedon 61

VII—Philip of Macedon—The Exploits and Death of Alexander 66

VIII—From the Death of Alexander to the Sujugation of Greece by the Romans 71

IX—Grecian Antiquities 74

Philosophy 74

Seven Wise Men 76

Council of the Amphictyons 76

Public Games 76

Literature 77

Arts 78

Private and Domestic Life 79

Origin of Tragedy 80

Book IV—Rome

CHAP. PAGE

I—From the Foundation of the City to the Expulsion of Tarquin. 82
II—From the Abolition of the Regal Power to the First Punic War. 87
III—From the First Punic War to the Conquest of Greece..... 97
IV—The Sedition of the Gracchi—Civil Wars—Conspiracy of Catiline. 104
V—From the First Triumvirate to the Dissolution of the Commonwealth 108
VI—Rome as an Empire..... 117
VII—From Nerva to Constantine the Great..... 123
VIII—From the Accession of Constantine to the Fall of the Western Empire 129
IX—Roman Institutions and Customs..... 134
X—Mythology of Ancient Nations..... 139

MODERN HISTORY

Book V—The Middle Ages

I—Sixth Century 147
Seventh Century 149
Eighth Century..... 150
Ninth Century..... 152
Tenth Century..... 154
Eleventh Century..... 155
Twelfth Century..... 157
Thirteenth Century..... 157
Fourteenth Century..... 159
Monasteries 159
II—The Saracen Empire..... 161
III—The Feudal System..... 166
IV—The Crusades 168
First Crusade..... 169
Second Crusade..... 172
Third Crusade..... 173
Fourth and Fifth Crusades..... 175
Sixth Crusade..... 175
Seventh and Eighth Crusades..... 177
The Results of the Crusades..... 178
V—Chivalry 181
Tournaments and Jousts..... 184
The Origin of Duels..... 185

Book VI—France

I—Foundation of the Monarchy—Merovingian and Carlovingian Kings 187
II—Capetian Kings..... 191
III—Branch of Valois..... 194
IV—From the Accession of Louis XII to the Reign of Henry III... 198
V—House of Bourbon, from Henry IV to the Death of Louis XV.. 204
VI—Louis XVI and his Misfortunes..... 210
VII—Bonaparte and his Wonderful Career..... 216

CHAP. PAGE

VIII—Louis XVIII, Charles X, and Louis Philippe..... 223
IX—The New Republic soon succeeded by the Second Empire—Reign and Downfall of Napoleon III—Glance at the Present French Republic—Separation of Church and State..... 227

Book VII—England

I—From the Conquest by the Romans, B. C. 55 to A. D. 827..... 242
II—The Foundation of the Monarchy..... 246
III—*Norman Family;* William the Conqueror—William II—Henry I—Stephen of Blois..... 252
IV—*Family of Plantagenet;* Henry II—Richard I—John—Henry III—Edward I—Edward II—Edward III—Richard II..... 254
V—*Branch of Lancaster;* Henry IV—Henry V—Henry VI..... 266
VI—*Branch of York;* Edward IV—Edward V—Richard III..... 270
VII—*Tudor Family;* Henry VII—Henry VIII—Edward VI—Mary—Elizabeth 273
VIII—*Stuart Family;* James I—Charles I—The Commonwealth—Cromwell—Charles II—James II—William and Mary—Anne 282
IX—*Branch of Brunswick;* George I—Greorge II—George III—George IV—William IV..... 296
X—The Reign of Queen Victoria—Irish Land Purchase Act..... 300

Book VIII—Scotland

I—Early History..... 311
II—*House of Stuart*..... 314
III—Mary Queen of Scots..... 321

Book IX—Ireland

I—Ancient Pagan Ireland..... 329
II—Early Christian Ireland..... 332
III—From the Invasion of Henry II to the Invasion of Cromwell... 336
IV—From James II till the Rebellion of 1798..... 345
V—From the Rebellion of 1798 till 1880—Irish Universities Act... 351

Book X—Spain

I—Its Early History..... 362
II—Modern Spain—Loss of colonial empire..... 363
III—The Inquisition..... 370

Book XI—Italy

I—From the Fall of the Empire of the West to the Death of Pope Gregory VII..... 371
II—From the Death of Pope Gregory VII to the Present Time.... 378

Book XII—Germany and Austria

I—From the Earliest Period to the Accession of the House of Hapsburg 389
II—A Glance at the History of Six Hundred Years..... 391

Book XIII—Prussia

CHAP. PAGE

I—Early History to the Conclusion of the Reign of Frederick the Great 396
II—From the Death of Frederick the Great till the Present Time—Military power and commercial development of Germany.. 398

Book XIV—Russia

I—Early History 405
II—Russia in the Nineteenth Century..... 407

Book XV

1—Portugal 413
II—Poland 415
III—Sweden and Norway..... 417
IV—Denmark 421
V—Holland and Belgium..... 424
VI—Switzerland 428
VII—Modern Greece 431
VIII—Turkey 440

Book XVI—America

I—Discovery of the New World..... 445
II—Conquest of Mexico and Peru..... 452
The Manners and Customs of the Indians..... 455
The Rise of the Republics of South America..... 457
III—Settlement of Canada, Virginia and New York..... 459
IV—New England Settlements..... 465
V—Maryland and its Catholic Founders..... 473
VI—Pennsylvania 475
VII—Delaware and New Jersey..... 476
The Carolinas..... 477
Georgia 477
VIII—The French War and the Conquest of Canada..... 478
IX—The Oppressive Measures that finally Led to the Declaration of Independence 482

Book XVII—The United States of America

I—The War of the Revolution..... 491
II—The Administrations of Washington and Adams..... 500
III—The Administration of Thomas Jefferson..... 505
IV—The Administration of James Madison..... 507
V—The Administrations of Monroe, Adams, Jackson, Van Buren, Harrison, and Tyler..... 514
VI—Polk's Administration 516
VII—The Administrations of Taylor, Fillmore, and Pierce..... 533
VIII—The Administrations of Buchanan and Lincoln—The Civil War. 538
IX—The New National Life—Administrations of Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Cleveland, Harrison, McKinley, Roosevelt, and Taft..... 547

Book XVIII—Other Countries.

CHAP. PAGE

OTHER AMERICAN COUNTRIES 562
Canada 562
Mexico 565
Central America 568
Colombia and Venezuela 569
The Three Guianas 571
Ecuador 571
Peru 572
Bolivia 573
Chili 574
Argentina 575
Uruguay 577
Paraguay 578
Brazil 579
Hayti and San Domingo 581
Cuba 583
ASIA 584
Persia 585
Afghanistan 586
Beloochistan and India 587
China 590
Korea 594
Japan 595
Siam 605
French Indo-China 605
Australasia 606
AFRICA 608
Egypt 608
Algeria 612
Morocco 613
Abyssinia 615
The Cape Colony and the Boer Countries 616
The Congo Free State and Liberia 617
The Partition of Africa 617

Book XIX—The Catholic Church

I—From the Birth of Christ to the Triumph of Christianity 621
II—From the Triumph of Christianity to the Protestant Reformation 631
III—From the Protestant Reformation to the Present Time 641

Book XX

SHORT BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF EMINENT PERSONAGES 654
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE 679

Appendices

A—THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE 699
B—THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES 703

ALPHABETICAL INDEX 717

COMPENDIUM

OF

ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY

BOOK I

INTRODUCTION

THE SOURCES AND DIVISIONS OF HISTORY.

HISTORY is a written account of past events. It is a record of the lives of nations.

The principal sources of history are:

1. **Authentic records,** of which the Bible* is the most ancient and venerable.

2. **Oral tradition,** which existed before the invention of the art of writing. From this source, Herod'otus, one of the earliest of secular historians, derived the greater part of the facts which he relates.

3. **Historical poems,** such as the Il'iad and Od'yssey of Homer, which comprised the only history of the heroic ages of Greece.

4. **Monuments and ruins,** as the Pyramids of Egypt, and the remains of such ancient cities as Bal'bec, Babylon, Troy, Nin'eveh, Palmy'ra, and Persep'olis, which serve to give an idea of the taste, power, and opulence of those by whom they were built.

* The Bible contains seventy-two books, forty-five of which belong to the Old Testament, and twenty-seven to the New Testament.

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1. What is history? Which is the first source of history? the second? the third? the fourth?

5. **Coins and medals** have always been of great utility in illustrating history, and of giving some insight into the manners and customs of those nations to which they belonged.

6. **Inscriptions on marbles.**—The most celebrated collection of marbles is that at the University of Oxford, England, called the Arundelian Marbles, from the Earl of Arundel, by whom they were brought from Greece. Of these inscriptions, the most important is the Chronicle of Pa'ros, which contains the chronology of Athens from the time of Ce'crops, B. C. 1582 to B. C. 264.

7. History is divided, with respect to time, into Ancient and Modern. Ancient history embraces the history of the world from the creation of man to the birth of Christ. Modern history comprises all the time subsequent to that period. There is, however, a difference of opinion with regard to the line which separates ancient from modern history. Some historians adopt the Christian era for the commencement of modern history; others take the subversion of the Western Empire of the Romans, A. D. 476; while others again carry it down as far as the establishment of the New Empire of the West, under Charlemagne, A. D. 800.

8. Ancient history is distinguished by the creation and fall of Adam and Eve; the Deluge; the dispersion of mankind; and the formation of the four great Empires of Assyria, Persia, Greece, and Rome, which in turn arose, flourished, and decayed.

9. Modern history is chiefly distinguished by the birth of Christ; the redemption of mankind; the foundation of the Catholic Church; the spread of Christianity; the fall of the Roman Empire; the rise of the principal modern nations of Europe; the rise, progress, and decline of Mohammedanism; the establishment of the Feudal System; the Crusades; Chivalry; the invention of gunpowder and the art of printing; the discovery and settlement of America; the revival of letters; the revolt of Luther; the invention of the steam-

---

Which is the fifth source of history? the sixth? Where is the most celebrated collection of marbles? Which is the most important of these, and what does it contain?—7. How is history divided? What is ancient history? What is modern history? What do some historians adopt as the dividing line between ancient and modern history?—8. For what is ancient history distinguished?—9. For what is modern history distinguished?

engine and the telegraph; and many advances and improvements in the arts, sciences, and the social condition of man.

10. That period of time extending from the fall of the Western Empire of the Romans, A. D. 476, to that of the Eastern Empire, A. D. 1453, is often styled the Middle Ages.

11. History is divided, with respect to the nature of its subjects, into Sacred, Profane, Ecclesiastical, and Civil.

12. **Sacred history** is that which is contained in the Holy Scriptures.

13. **Profane history** is the history of the ancient pagan nations. The earliest profane historian is Herodotus, who is styled the Father of History. He compiled his works about 445 years B. C., and extends his accounts back as far as the year 713 before the Christian era.

14. **Ecclesiastical history** is the history of the Church of Christ, from the establishment of Christianity to the present time.

15. **Civil history** is the history of the principal nations, states, empires, and republics that have appeared in the world.

For a period of many thousands of years subsequent to the creation of man, there exist no documents, with the exception of the Scriptures, that really deserve the name of history. Our knowledge, therefore, of the early history of the world, the first settlements of the different parts of it, and the primitive state of society, is extremely limited.

---

10. Over what period of time do the Middle Ages extend?—11. Name the other divisions of history?—12. What is sacred history?—13. Profane history? Who is the earliest profane historian?—14. What is ecclesiastical history?—15. Civil history.

ANCIENT HISTORY

LESSONS IN SACRED HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE CREATION OF THE WORLD—THE CREATION OF MAN—THE DELUGE—THE TOWER OF BABEL—THE DISPERSION OF MANKIND.

THE history of the world begins with the first act of the creation, when, in the words of Moses, the most ancient of the sacred writers, "God created heaven and earth." He called the universe into existence by an act of His almighty power. This wonderful work, according to Holy Scripture, occupied six days; but it is generally believed that the days of the Creation were periods of great length. We have good reason to think that the earth existed long ages before the creation of Adam.* But when the world was clothed in beauty, God said: "Let us make man to Our image and likeness." Adam was formed from the slime of the earth,† and the adorable Creator "breathed into his face the breath of life, and man became a living soul." This extraordinary event took place many thousands of years ago. Some authorities believe that the human race has been on the earth from 8,000 to 10,000 years. The Almighty gave man dominion over the earth and every creature on it; and, finally, seeing that all His work was good, rested on the seventh day, which He sanctified as a day to be devoted to religious solemnities.

2. The first woman was formed from a rib, taken from the side of Adam while in a deep sleep; and she was given to him as a companion. In this manner was the sacred institution of marriage ordained by the Creator himself. Adam

* See Molloy's *Geology and Revelation.*

† Adam signifies *earth-man,* or *drawn from the earth.*

Sacred History. CHAPTER I.—1. When does the history of the world begin? What is said of the six days of the creation? Relate how God created the first man. About how many years ago is it since this event occurred? What did God do on the seventh day?—2. From what was the first woman formed?

and Eve* were placed, immediately after their creation, in a terrestrial paradise, called the Garden of Eden. They were permitted to use all the fruits of that lovely abode, except the fruit of the tree of knowledge of good and evil; this restriction was laid upon them as a trial of their obedience, and the penalty of death was threatened if they should transgress the command of their Creator.

3. Various opinions have been entertained with respect to the situation of the Garden of Eden; but following the account given of it in the Old Testament, and judging from the well known names of the Ti'gris and Euphra'tes, we may determine, with some probability, that it was situated in or near Mesopota'mia. It is evident that it was east of Ca'naan, or of the wilderness where Moses wrote his sacred history, though the precise spot cannot now be ascertained.

4. The innocence and happiness of our first parents were of short duration. Scarcely had they begun to enjoy the delights of paradise, when the woman, deceived by the subtlety of Satan, in the form of a serpent, plucked and eat of the forbidden fruit, and at the same time presented it to her husband, who likewise followed her example. The effect was decisive. The whole face of creation was changed. Death and sin were introduced, and from that moment our first parents, with all their posterity, became liable to dissolution, and to all the moral and physical evils which have since afflicted the human family. God called them to account, and His awful voice filled their souls with dread.

5. Adam being severely reprimanded for his disobedience, began to exculpate himself upon the weak pretence that the woman had first offered him the fruit. The woman hearing herself thus accused, sought to remove the blame from herself and to fix it upon the serpent, that had deceived her. But in a formal violation of His solemn commands, God admits of no excuse. He cursed the serpent as the first author of the sin, condemning it to creep upon the earth, and eat the dust thereof; but for fear that man should despair under the

* Eve signifies *life*, or *the mother of the living.*

What were the names of the first of the human family? and where were they placed? What were they permitted to use? Why was this restriction laid upon them?—3. Where is the supposed situation of the garden of Eden?—4. What is said of the innocence of our first parents? How was the woman deceived? and what was the effect of their disobedience?—5. What sentence was pronounced on the serpent?

weight of his afflictions, He promised him a future deliverer, declaring that the seed of the woman would eventually crush the serpent's head,—a declaration which referred, in its full extent, to the person of Jesus Christ, the Savior of mankind. Adam and Eve were then banished from paradise, and an angel with a flaming sword placed at the east of the garden, to prevent all access to that once happy abode.

6. In the first year of the companionship of Adam and Eve, of uncertain date, Cain was born, and the following year is assigned for the birth of Abel. The two brothers not only followed different occupations, but possessed very different characters. On a certain occasion, as they were both presenting their offerings to God, the offering of Abel was accepted, while that of Cain was rejected. This circumstance excited the indignation of Cain, who, availing himself of an opportunity when they were alone in the field, rose up against his brother and murdered him. On account of this unnatural crime, Cain was immediately punished. God called him to a solemn reckoning, and after hearing with bitter anguish his doom pronounced, that he should be a fugitive and a vagabond on earth, we are told that he went out from the presence of the Lord, and dwelt in the land of Nod, east of Eden.

7. After a brief account of Cain and his family, the sacred historian gives us a short but interesting account of Enoch, who is said to have walked with God for the space of three hundred years, and, at the expiration of that time, to have been taken up to heaven without passing through the ordeal of death. The genealogy of the human family is carried down to the time of Noah* and his sons, and the date of the life of each of the patriarchs is minutely given. The descendants of Seth at first continued pure and uncorrupt; at length, however, by intermarriage with the descendants of Cain, they became like the rest of mankind—exceedingly degenerate.

8. The Almighty, justly provoked by the enormous degeneracy of His creatures, determined to destroy, by a universal Deluge, the race of man, together with the whole

* This name is also written Noe.

What promise was made to man? What then became of Adam and Eve?—6. When was Cain born? When was Abel born? and what is related of the two brothers?—7. What is said of Enoch? and the descendants of Cain?—8. What did the Deity determine to do?

animal creation, except a small remnant destined again to re-people the earth. From this awful sentence which God had pronounced, Noah and his family, eight in number, were the only persons who were exempted. Connected with this intimation which Noah had received concerning the approaching Deluge, were several particular instructions relative to his deliverance. He was ordered to build, according to the divine directions, a large vessel, called the Ark.

9. The Ark was built of gopher wood, which is supposed to be the same as cypress. Its form was that of an oblong square, with a flat bottom and a sloping roof, elevated one cubit in the middle; it consisted of three stories, and was divided into separate apartments.* When completed, Noah entered the Ark, together with his wife, his three sons and their wives, taking with him every species of beasts, birds, and reptiles, by pairs and by sevens, according to the divine command. Immediately after this, the fountains of the deep were broken up, and the windows of heaven were opened; during forty days and forty nights, without intermission, the waters were poured upon the surface of the globe. In the meantime, the Ark rose with the rising flood, and rode triumphant over the raging water, which soon buried beneath its swelling waves all living creatures, without distinction.

10. When the waters began to subside, the Ark rested on the top of Mount A'rarat, in Arme'nia, and after it had remained there for four months, Noah being anxious to know whether they had disappeared from the earth, opened the window of the Ark, and sent forth a crow, which did not return; after this he sent forth a dove, which, not finding a place on which to rest its feet, again returned to the Ark. At the end of seven days, however, the dove was sent out a second time, and in the evening returned, bearing in its beak a green olive branch, which Noah joyfully received, not only as a proof that the flood had abated, but likewise as a sign that God was reconciled with the world.

11. By the command of God, Noah then went out of the Ark with his family, taking with him all the living creatures, after they had been shut up for the space of a year, and im-

* The Ark was about 547 feet long, 92 feet wide, and 54 feet high.

Who was exempted from the sentence?—9. Describe the ark. When completed, what did Noah do? How long did the waters continue to fall?—10. Where did the ark rest? What is said of the crow and the dove?—11. What did Noah now do?

mediately afterwards he built an altar, and offered sacrifice to the almighty Creator of heaven and earth. God blessed Noah and his sons, and made a covenant with him, engaging no more to destroy the earth with a flood, in confirmation of which He set His bow in the heavens. Shortly after this period, Noah engaged in pursuits of husbandry, and, having been intoxicated with the juice of the grape, was discovered in this situation by his youngest son Ham,* who with indecent levity informed his brothers of the circumstance; they, however, treated their father with the highest degree of filial respect.

Noah, as soon as he awoke, being informed of all that had passed, condemned the action of Ham, pronounced a curse upon his posterity, declaring that they should be the slaves to the slaves of his brethren, while at the same time he highly commended the piety of Shem and Japhet.†

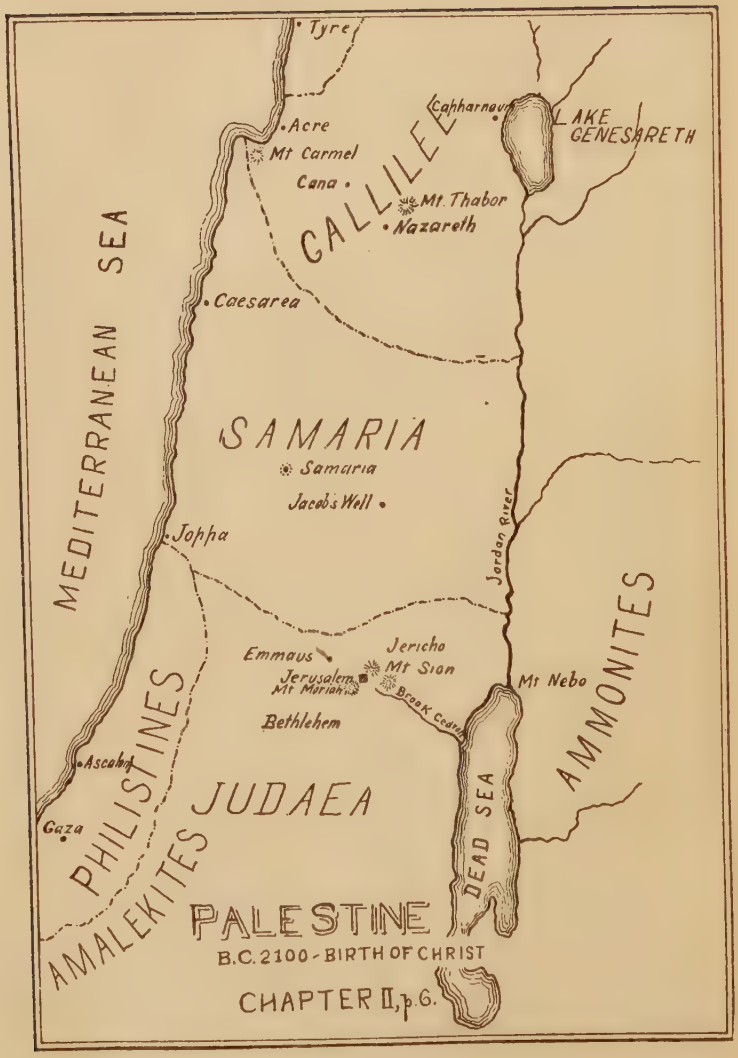
12. The descendants of Noah soon became very numerous in the vicinity of Mount Ararat, where they first settled after the Deluge, and finding the place too small, they began to think of extending their territories, and of making new settlements in different parts of the globe. Before their separation, they proposed leaving some monument behind them that might make their memory famous in after ages. With this view they undertook to build a city, and in it to erect a tower, the top of which might reach to heaven. This intention was not merely to signalize their name, but also to provide themselves with a place of security against any future Deluge that might happen. At this time all mankind spoke the same language, and thereby more effectually encouraged each other in their impious undertaking. God being offended at their presumption, resolved to stop the progress of their labor. By a stroke of His divine power, they all in a moment lost their uniformity of language,‡ and were surprised to hear nothing but a confused and discordant sound of words, which no one could understand. The tumult

* Also written Cham.

† Also written Sem and Japheth.

‡ "There is sufficient connection between *all* the languages on the face of the earth to show that they had a common origin."—*Br. Azarias, Essay on a Philosophy of Literature.*

What promise did God make? In what did Noah engage? What happened to him? What sentence did he pronounce on Ham?—12. What is said of the descendants of Noah? What did they undertake? What did God do? What ensued? Where did the descendants of the sons of Noah settle?


Tyre
Acre
Mt Carmel
Cana
Capharnaum
LAKE GENESARETH
GALILEE
Mt. Thabor
Nazareth
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Caesarea
SAMARIA
Samaria
Jacob's Well
Joppa
Jordan River
AMMONITES
Emmaus
Jericho
Mt Sion
Jerusalem
Mt Moriah
Mt Nebo
Brook Cedron
Bethlehem
Ascalon
JUDAEA
Gaza
PHILISTINES
AMALEKITES
DEAD SEA
PALESTINE
B.C. 2100 - BIRTH OF CHRIST
CHAPTER II, p. 6.

and disorder that ensued, caused them to desist from their design, and the tower which they had begun was, on that account, called the Tower of Babel, which signifies confusion.

After this event, mankind separated and dispersed into different nations. The descendants of Shem are said to have settled in the southwest of Asia; those of Ham in Syria, Arabia, and Africa, while the posterity of Japhet peopled the centre and west of Asia, and nearly all Europe.*

CHAPTER II

THE EARLY HISTORY OF THE JEWS, UNTIL THEIR DELIVERANCE FROM EGYPT.

THE Jews, commonly called the people of God, derive their origin from Abraham, the son of Tha're, the tenth in lineal descent from Shem, the son of Noah. The call of Abraham is a remarkable event in history, and took place 2100 years before the Christian era. This illustrious man intended to settle in Haran, but in obedience to the will of God he removed to the land of Canaan, which was appointed to be the inheritance of his posterity. After his arrival there, his first care was to erect an altar for the worship of God, who appeared to him and confirmed the promise, which He had before made, of giving the country to his children. When he had lived some time in Canaan, a famine compelled him to remove his family into Egypt, where he resided until the famine ceased, and then he returned.

2. Shortly after this time happened the remarkable visitation of the divine wrath on Sod'om and several other cities. The crimes of these cities cried aloud to Heaven for vengeance; and three angels, in the form of young men, were sent to destroy them. Abraham having entertained the heavenly visitors in his tent, accompanied them on their way to Sodom,

* A remarkable change in the duration of human life took place during this age of the world. Before the Deluge men lived to a very advanced age. Adam lived 900 years; Jared, 962 years; Methuselah, 969 years; and Noah, 950 years. But after that great catastrophe the life of man was so reduced that David, in the eighty-ninth psalm, says, "The days of our years are *three-score and ten.*"

CHAPTER II.—1. What is said of the Jews? When was the call of Abraham? Where did he settle? Where did he remove with his family?—2. After this time what happened?

and obtained from them, that Lot and his family should be spared. Lot was therefore admonished to depart with his wife and his two daughters, and they were ordered not to look upon the city. But scarcely had he reached a place of safety, when Sodom and Gomor'rah, with two other cities, were consumed by fire that fell from heaven, leaving the site on which they stood, and the country in the vicinity, a lake, called at the present time the Dead Sea, the water of which is clear and heavy, but extremely nauseous and bitter to the taste. When the noise of the falling fire was heard, Lot's wife, forgetful of the injunction of the angels, looked back upon the city; but her curiosity was punished on the spot. She was changed into a pillar of salt, to serve as a warning to those who, at any time, cast back a wistful glance on the sinful objects which they have once forsaken.

3. Sa'rah, the wife of Abraham, when far advanced in years, bore him a son, who was called Isaac. When Isaac had grown up, God, to try the faith of Abraham, commanded him to offer his son in sacrifice on a mountain which He should point out to him. The holy patriarch obeyed without hesitation, but at the moment when his hand was raised to strike the victim, an angel was sent to stop his arm, and to assure him that God was satisfied with the readiness of his obedience. Isaac was afterwards married to Rebec'ca, the mother of E'sau and Jacob. Jacob, by the command of the Lord, took the name of Isra'el, hence his posterity were called Israelites, or children of Israel.

4. Jacob had twelve sons, of whom Joseph was particularly loved by his father, and on that account hated by the rest of his brothers. On a certain occasion, as they were tending their flocks, at some distance from home, Joseph was sent by his father to see how they conducted themselves; they immediately seized and sold him as a slave to some Ish'maelite merchants, and told his father that he had been devoured by wild beasts. The merchants carried him into Egypt, and sold him to Pot'iphar, an officer of the court. Joseph served Potiphar with so much fidelity, that he soon committed to him the care of his household. The wife of

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What is said of Abraham? Who was admonished to depart? What is the site on which it stood now called? What is related of Lot's wife?—3. When Isaac had grown up, what did God command? What did the holy patriarch do? Whom did Isaac marry?—4. How many sons had Jacob? On a certain occasion, what took place? Where was Joseph carried?

Potiphar repeatedly attempted to seduce Joseph to the commission of a shameful crime, but the virtuous youth rejected her proposals with disdain. Incensed at this, however, the malicious woman accused him of an attempt against her honor. On this false accusation Joseph was thrown into prison, where he languished for several years.

5. At last the Pha'raoh, or king of Egypt, had two dreams that greatly perplexed him, and he could find no one in Egypt able to interpret them. Finally he was informed of a Hebrew servant, then in prison, who had wisely interpreted the dreams of two of his officers; this was Joseph, who, on being introduced to the king, explained his dreams, and told him that they predicted an abundant product of the earth for seven years, and afterwards a famine for the same space of time. Upon this he was not only released from prison, but appointed to administer the affairs of Egypt under Pharaoh.

6. During the famine which followed, all his brothers, with the exception of Benjamin, went into Egypt for the purpose of buying provisions. Joseph knew them, but he was unknown to them; he therefore asked them, as if strangers to him, whence they had come, and whether they were spies. They answered him with profound respect, that they had come into Egypt with the honest intention of buying corn; that they were twelve brothers; that one of them no longer existed, and that the youngest, called Benjamin, was left at home with his father Jacob in Canaan. The name of Benjamin touched the inmost feeling of Joseph's breast. He therefore determined to have him brought into Egypt. For this purpose he seemed to give no credit to their words, and said that, to assure himself of the truth of their account, one of them should remain as a hostage until their younger brother should be brought into Egypt. Therefore retaining Sim'eon, the rest were permitted to depart.

7. Upon their return home, they informed their father of all that had passed, and particularly of the engagement they were under of taking Benjamin into Egypt, where Simeon was detained as a pledge of their promise. Nothing could exceed the grief of the aged father on receiving this intel-

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What is said of the wife of Potiphar? What happened to Joseph?—5. What is said of Pharaoh? Of what was he informed? What did Joseph tell him?—6. During the famine, what took place? What did Joseph ask them? How did the name of Benjamin affect Joseph? What method did he adopt to bring him into Egypt?—7. What did they inform their father?

ligence. He bemoaned his misfortunes. He spoke of his children, and became inconsolable at the thought of parting with the last and dearest of his sons. Joseph, said he, is no more, Simeon is in chains, and must Benjamin, also, be taken from me? No, I will not consent; to part with him would wring my very soul with grief, and carry my gray hairs in anguish to the grave.

8. Jacob, however, at length consented to the departure of Benjamin, who accompanied his brothers on their return to Egypt. They were kindly received by Joseph, who finally made himself known to them in these words: "I am Joseph; does my father yet live?" Struck silent with amazement, they were for some time unable to reply. Joseph wept and tenderly embraced them all; but with greater feeling he threw himself upon the neck of Benjamin, and pressed him to his breast. He then told them to hasten to their father and let him know that his son Joseph was still alive, and to bring him down into Egypt. Jacob accordingly removed with all his family into Egypt, and Joseph assigned them a residence in the land of Goshen, a fertile district situated between the Nile and the Red Sea.

9. Jacob lived seventeen years after his removal into Egypt. Upon being informed of his illness, Joseph, with filial piety, hastened to pay the last duties of affection to his dying father. The venerable patriarch raised himself in his bed at his son's approach, and spoke to him of the inheritance which God had promised to his seed in the land of Canaan, where he desired his remains to be removed after his death. He called his other sons around his bed, and gave to each a special blessing: the most memorable was that which he spoke of Judah, in which he expressly declared, that from his race the Messi'ah, the expected of all nations, should be born, and that this great event should take place at or near the time when the sovereign power should be entirely taken away from the Jewish nation. Jacob died in the one hundred and forty-seventh year of his age.

10. Joseph, after the death of his father, continued to rule over Egypt until his own death, which occurred about the year 1635 B. C. In less than forty years after this event, a

What is said of the aged father? What did he say?—8. To what did Jacob at length consent? In what words did Joseph make himself known? What did he tell them?—9. How long did Jacob live? What is said of Joseph? What did the patriarch do? What did he say of the Messiah?—10. What is now said of Joseph?

total change took place in the affairs of Egypt; a new king occupied the throne who knew not Joseph, and, forgetful of his administration, cruelly oppressed the Hebrew people. To check their increase and prosperity, the most rigorous measures were adopted; their lives were embittered by hard service at public works, and all their male children were ordered to be thrown into the river Nile.

11. After much suffering, God raised up a deliverer of His chosen people, who should rescue them from a state of cruel servitude, and bring them out of the land of bondage. This deliverer was Mo'ses, the most distinguished personage of ancient times. In consequence of the Pharaoh's inhuman decree, Moses was exposed by his mother on the banks of the Nile, and was found by the king's daughter, who compassionately adopted him, and thus saved his life. Before the hard heart of the Pharaoh could be induced to consent to the departure of the Hebrews, a number of extraordinary and supernatural events took place, called the ten plagues of Egypt. The first of these plagues was the change of the waters of the Nile, and of the wells of Egypt, into blood; and by the last, the whole land was covered with darkness for three days.

12. The Pharaoh at last consented to allow Moses to conduct the Israelites into the wilderness for three days, to perform their religious duties. At the expiration of this time, finding that they did not return, he put himself at the head of his army and resolved to pursue them. Moses retreated until he came to the shore of the Red Sea, where, seeing the hosts of Egypt pressing forward, he extended his arm over the profound abyss, as God had commanded him. The waters suddenly divided and opened a passage to the opposite shore. The Israelites immediately entered the dry hollow of the deep, amazed at the watery bounds that stood suspended as walls upon their right and on their left.

13. The Pharaoh, insensible to the miracle, and thinking the passage as safe and as free for him as for the Israelites, entered precipitately after them, with all his army, and advanced to the middle of the abyss before he became sensible of his danger. By this time Moses, who, with all his fol-

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Of the new king? To check their increase, what was adopted?—11. What did God raise up? Who was this deliverer? What is related of Moses? What was the first and last plague of Egypt?—12. To what did Pharaoh at last consent? At the expiration of this time what did he do? What did Moses do? Where did the Israelites enter?—13. What is related of the Pharaoh?

lowers, had reached the other shore, stretched forth his hand again over the sea, and thus, hemmed in on every side, the magnificent hosts of Egypt perished in battling with the wild waters of the Red Sea.*

14. The Israelites, after their deliverance from Egypt, wandered through the desert for forty years, during which time they received many signal proofs of the divine favor in their regard. They were supplied with food by manna, which fell regularly every morning, except on the Sabbath. On one occasion, when they were greatly in want of water, Moses supplied them with that element, by striking a rock with his rod and causing a stream to issue from it. In the second year after their deliverance from Egypt, Moses numbered the children of Israel, and found them to amount to six hundred and three thousand five hundred and fifty men, besides women and children. When they arrived at Mount Si'nai God gave them His divine law, amidst thunder and lightning. Moses was the only person allowed to ascend the mountain, and during his absence the ungrateful Israelites fell into idolatry, and worshipped a golden calf.

15. Moses, after forty days and nights spent in this secret interview, received two tables of stone from God, who had engraved upon them, as the Scripture expresses it, with His own hand, the Ten Commandments. In these ten fundamental precepts are contained an admirable summary of our various duties to God and to man. We are directed to adore but one God, the author of all blessings; we are commanded to reverence His holy name, and are reminded of the dreadful vengeance denounced against those who shall transfer to idols, or to the creature, that worship which is due only to the Creator. To prevent the neglect of those sacred obligations, we are commanded to abstain from work one day in each week, that it may be more immediately devoted to the duties of religion. Four of the precepts of the Mosaic code comprehend the principles of universal jurisprudence:

* Josephus states that the Pharaoh had six hundred war chariots, two hundred thousand infantry, and fifty thousand horsemen, all fully equipped.

When Moses had reached the other shore, what did he do? What happened to the Egyptian host?—14. What is said of the Israelites? With what were they supplied? On one occasion, what is related? In the second year, what was the number found to be? At Mount Sinai, what was given? What is said of Moses?—15. What did Moses receive? In these, what are contained? What are we directed, etc.? To prevent, etc., what are we commanded?

"Thou shalt not kill." "Thou shalt not commit adultery." "Thou shalt not steal." "Thou shalt not bear false witness." These have formed the basis of criminal law in all civilized nations, and are essential to the good order of society.

16. When Moses descended from the mountain, and found the people worshipping a golden calf, transported with holy indignation at the sight, he threw down the tables of the law, and broke them into pieces; then seizing the idol he immediately broke it down and cast it into the fire; and placing himself at the entrance of the camp, he proclaimed aloud that all those who still retained a sense of their duty to God should come forth and join him. The faithful tribe of Levi, having arranged themselves by his side, Moses ordered them to march through the camp and put to death all who came in their way. The order was immediately executed, and above twenty thousand men were put to death, to expiate the guilt of those who remained.

17. Moses, by the express command of God, having prepared two tables of stone, like those he had broken, went again to the summit of Sinai, where he received the same words engraved on them which had been engraved on the first. When he came down from the mountain and approached the camp, the Israelites perceived a bright halo of glory which encircled his countenance, and made them afraid to approach him. Being told the cause of their dread, he covered his face with a veil, which he afterwards continued to wear. Moses then caused the tabernacle to be built, which was a quadrangular tent, thirty cubits in length and nine in breadth. The inside of the tabernacle was hung with richly embroidered tapestry, and was divided into two parts of four pillars, before which was suspended a veil of the most exquisite needlework, variegated with the brightest coloring of purple and scarlet. The apartment enclosed behind the veil was called the Holy of Holies, and the space between the veil and the entrance was called the sanctuary. The tabernacle being finished, the Ark of the Covenant was made. It measured two cubits and a half in length, one and

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What do four of these precepts comprehend? What are these four precepts?—16. What is now said of Moses? What did he do with the idol? What did Moses order then? How many were put to death?—17. What did Moses now do? When he came down, what is related of him? What did he cause to be built? Describe the tabernacle. The tabernacle being finished, what was made? What did it measure?

a half in breadth, and the same in height; it was made of incorruptible wood, plated within and without with the purest gold, and covered with a lid, also of solid gold, which was called the mercy-seat. On the mercy-seat were placed two cherubs face to face, with their wings extended, so as to cover the ark. The ark, when finished, was placed in the tabernacle.

18. About this time Moses sent twelve men to survey the land of Canaan; all, with the exception of Josh'ua* and Ca'leb, gave an unfavorable report, which caused the people to murmur. In consequence of this offence, God condemned all those who were twenty years of age, when they left Egypt, to die in the wilderness, except Joshua and Caleb.

The earth opened and swallowed Ko'rah,† Da'than, and Abi'ram,‡ for heading a revolt against Moses; at the same time fire descended and destroyed two hundred and fifty of those who had participated in their offence. Moses at length died at the age of one hundred and twenty years, on Mount Ne'bo, in the land of Moab, having first taken a view of the Promised Land, which he was not permitted to enter. After the death of Moses, Joshua was acknowledged his successor in the supreme temporal command, who, having conquered the various nations that opposed him, and having surmounted innumerable obstacles, finally conducted the Israelites into the Land of Promise.

CHAPTER III

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE JUDGES—THE REGAL GOVERNMENT —THE RESTORATION OF THE JEWS FROM CAPTIVITY.

THE period during the government of the Judges was extremely turbulent, and marked by an almost uninterrupted series of hostilities with their warlike neighbors. We are not informed with certainty as to the manner of choosing

* Also written Josue. † Also written Core.
‡ Also written Abiron.

On the mercy-seat what was placed?—18. At this time, what was done? What was their report? In consequence of this, to what were they condemned? What is related of Korah? At what age did Moses die, and where? After the death of Moses, what did Joshua, his successor, do?

CHAPTER III.—1. What sort of period occurred under the government of the Judges?

the Judges, or what was the extent of their power. They appear to have been military chiefs for the command of the army, and some of them acquired very great fame by their successful expeditions against the enemies of their country. The most distinguished of those who filled the office of Judge were the last two, Eli and Samuel. Eli, who united in his person the duties of judge with the functions of High-priest, appears to have been incapable of discharging the obligations dependent on these two important offices. The people fell into idolatry, and, in punishment of their crimes, were subjugated by an ancient nation called the Philis'tines. In a great battle with the Philistines, the Hebrew army was defeated with dreadful slaughter, the two sons of Eli were slain, and the Ark of the Covenant fell into the hands of the enemy. At the news of this disaster, the venerable High-priest, Eli, now sightless with age, fell backward from his seat and expired on the spot.

2. The next and last judge of the Hebrews was Samuel the Prophet, B. C. 1112. He brought back the people to a sense of their duty, and soon restored the fallen glory of Israel by a signal victory over the Philistines. Peace was restored, public virtue again flourished, and Samuel for twenty years governed the Hebrew nation with wisdom and prudence. When age had rendered him incapable of executing his laborious duties, he united his two sons with him in the administration of the government. But the conduct of Samuel's sons, who inherited not the virtue of their father, gave offence to the Israelites, and they desired to be governed by a king, like the other nations around them. Samuel at length yielded to their request, and privately anointed Saul, the son of Cis, of the tribe of Benjamin, King of Israel. Samuel then assembled the tribes, that they might elect a person to rule over them, and having cast their votes, the lot fell upon the very person of Saul.

3. This event confirmed what had already passed in private, and indisputably proves that God presides over and directs the affairs of man. The name of Saul was immediately echoed through the tribes; and, on being presented

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What do they appear to have been? Who were the most distinguished? What is said of Eli? Into what did the people fall? In a great battle, what took place? At the news of this disaster, what happened?—2. Who was the last judge? What is said of him? Why did the Israelites desire to be governed by a king? Who was the first king?—3. What is said of this event?

before them, the whole multitude exclaimed, "God save the King!" This event took place after the government of the Judges had subsisted, with some intermission, for three hundred and fifty-six years, from the time of Joshua, B. C. 1091.

4. The beginning of the reign of Saul was auspicious, and distinguished by a complete victory over the Philistines, Amonites, and other nations. He was at length ordered by Almighty God, through the Prophet Samuel, to destroy the Am'alekites, an idolatrous and perfidious nation, the ever-declared enemies of the Hebrew people, and not to reserve the least thing that belonged to them. In obedience to this order, Saul put himself at the head of his army and marched against that hated people; but far from complying with the letter of his instructions, he spared the life of their king, reserved the choicest of the flocks, and took to himself the most precious of the spoils. On account of this and other acts of disobedience, Samuel, on the part of God, declared to Saul that the kingdom of Israel should be taken from him and transferred to another. Accordingly Samuel, by the divine direction, privately anointed David king, and appointed him to succeed to the throne, which Saul had forfeited by his crimes. The whole reign of Saul was a continued series of foreign or domestic troubles; being at length defeated in a war with the Philistines, he killed himself by falling upon his own sword, after a reign of forty years, B. C. 1051.

5. David, who had been anointed king by Samuel before the death of Saul, and held his title by divine appointment, was therefore acknowledged by the powerful tribe of Judah. He found, however, a formidable rival in Ish'bosheth, the son of Saul, who founded his claim on the right of descent, and was supported by many of the tribes. A civil war ensued, which continued for seven years, and was finally terminated by the death of Ishbosheth. After this event all the tribes submitted to David, and the crown became hereditary in his family.

6. The reign of David was brilliant and successful. He enlarged the bounds of his kingdom, took Jerusalem, which he made the capital of his dominions, and enriched himself

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What did the multitude exclaim? When did this take place?—4. What is said of the beginning of the reign of Saul? What was he ordered to do? What did he do? On account of this, what did Samuel do? Whom did he anoint as king? How did Saul die?—5. What is said of David? What did he find? What ensued?—6. What is said of the reign of David?

PALESTINE
32
33
34
34
33
SYRIA
Babylus
Berytus
Sidon
Tyre
Cape Blanco
Cape Carmel
Bepha
Bethsaida Julias
Tiberias
Sea of Galilee
Waters of Meron
Caperuaum
Dalmanutha
Capitolias
River
Gaulonitus
Golan
Canathia
Ceasarea Philippi
Damascus
PHENICIA
LEBANON MOUNTAIN
ANTILIBANUS
HERMON
ARABIA
BASAN
ZABULON
NAPHTHALI

Palestina
Nain
Scythopolis
Succoth
Hippos
Pool of Samaria
Samaria
Salem
Pella
Sheechem
Jordan
Jabbok River
Timath Serah
Arnon
SAMARIA
Joppe
EPHRAIM
Jacobs Well
Betharabia
Shiloh
Lydda
Aramathia
Emmaus
Gibeon
Bethel
Jericho
BENJAMIN
Gilgal
Rabbath Ammon
Heshbon
Jerusalem
Ascalon
Bethlehem
REUBEN
Burazan
Dibon
Hebron
Jutta
Gaza
JUDEA
Maon
Arad
Zoar
SIMEON
IDUMEA
Moab
Desert of Zin
Bozrah
Anathoth
HERUSALEM
Bethany
Bethlehem
32
33
34
31

and his subjects by the spoils of his enemies. He revived among the people an attachment for religion by the institution of solemn ceremonies; and he introduced a taste for the arts by inviting into the country able artists for the completion of the magnificent edifices which he erected. The latter part of his reign, however, was embittered by severe affliction. The kingdom was ravaged by pestilence, famine, and disastrous wars. His mind was harassed by domestic misfortunes. Some of his sons were disobedient and wicked. His favorite son, Ab'salom, excited a rebellion against his father, with a design of dethroning him; but he was defeated and slain. David caused his son Sol'omon to be crowned in the year 1011, before the Christian era, and died the following year, having reigned seven years and a half over Judah, and thirty-three years over all Israel.

7. During the reign of Solomon the kingdom of Israel rose to a higher degree of prosperity, felicity, and glory than it enjoyed at any former or subsequent period. He directed the councils of all the petty states situated between the Euphrates and the Mediterranean, and held the balance of power between the two great monarchies of Egypt and Assyria. Commerce was flourishing in a high degree; the vessels of Israel, under the direction of Tyrian mariners, traded to the land of Ophir, which is supposed to be a district of Ethio'pia, on the eastern coast of Africa. By these lucrative voyages they augmented the wealth of the nation, which David had already enriched by the spoils of war. But at length this prosperity began to decline. Solomon, elated by the uniform success which attended his reign, set no bounds to his magnificence and luxury, and in order to support his profuse expenditure laid heavy taxes upon the people; this finally alienated the affections of his subjects, and towards the close of his reign gave rise to a powerful faction, headed by a young man called Jerobo'am.

8. The most remarkable event in the reign of Solomon was the building of a magnificent Temple at Jerusalem, which was completed in the space of seven years. Two hundred and sixty thousand men were occupied in its erec-

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What did he do? What is said of the latter part of his reign? Of his favorite son Absalom? How long did he reign?—7. During the reign of Solomon, what is said of the kingdom of Israel? What did he direct? What is said of commerce? What did Solomon do when elated by prosperity?—8. What was the most remarkable event of his reign?

tion. The plan had been formed by David, and materials, workmen, and money provided for its erection. It was probably the most superb and costly structure of ancient times.

The wisdom of Solomon is proverbial. The books of Proverbs and Ecclesiastes are ascribed to him, either as the author or collector; they abound with precepts and maxims applicable to every state and condition of life. But notwithstanding the superior wisdom for which Solomon has been so justly celebrated, he appears to have been immersed in sensual pleasures. He married no fewer than a thousand wives, seven hundred of whom held the rank and title of Queen. The pernicious power of these women, chosen for the most part from idolatrous nations, led him into effeminacy and neglect of his important duties to God and his people; and their influence and superstitions at last drew him into idolatry. He died after an illustrious reign of forty years, leaving the world in doubt whether his memory be more worthy of praise or censure, and whether he died a friend or an enemy of his Creator, B. C. 971.

9. With Solomon expired the grandeur and tranquillity of the Hebrews. Upon the accession of his son, Rehobo'am, to the throne, the faction of Jeroboam broke out into open rebellion, and terminated in the revolt of the Ten Tribes from their allegiance to the house of David, leaving only the Two Tribes of Judah and Benjamin loyal to their lawful sovereign. The revolted tribes elected Jeroboam for their king, and the monarchy was thus divided into two separate kingdoms, Israel and Judah.

10. The policy of Jeroboam produced a religious as well as a political separation. Being persuaded that if he should permit his subjects to go into the kingdom of Judah, in order to perform the duties of religion in the temple at Jerusalem, they would by degrees lose their respect for his authority, and perhaps return to the allegiance of their former sovereign, he therefore ordered two new temples to be built, the one at Bethel and the other at Dan; and in them two golden calves to be set up and divine honors impiously paid to them, as to the God who had conducted the children of Israel out of the land of Egypt. Jeroboam, after a turbulent reign of

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What was it probably? What books are ascribed to him? In what does he appear to have been immersed? How many wives had he? Into what was he drawn? When did he die?—9. On the accession of Rehoboam, what broke out? Whom did the revolted tribes elect?—10. What did the policy of Jeroboam produce? What did he order?

twenty-two years, finished a wicked life by an unhappy end. His name is never mentioned in Holy Scripture but with detestation, on account of his having set up the worship of idols, which was continued by all the kings who succeeded to the throne of Israel, until an end was put to that kingdom by the Assyrians.

11. After this memorable epoch, the history of the two kingdoms of Israel and Judah, for a period of almost four hundred years, exhibits disunion, vice, wars, massacres, servitude, and affliction from famine and pestilence. At length the kingdom of the Ten Tribes was extinguished. The people were transported into Assyria and dispersed into different parts of the country, from which they never returned. The few left in Canaan were intermixed with strangers, and from that mixture of different nations originated a race of people, who were afterwards known by the name of Samar'itans. This event took place about 721 B. C., after the kingdom had subsisted two hundred and fifty-four years.

12. The tottering kingdom of Judah still continued to enjoy a precarious existence; it was invaded at different times by the Babylonians. At length rendered tributary, and finally subjugated, its metropolis, the city of Jerusalem, was destroyed, the Temple was demolished by the order of the conqueror, Nebuchadnez'zar;* all the principal inhabitants were stripped of everything valuable, and carried captives to Babylon. Thus ended the kingdom of Judah, after it had subsisted four hundred and sixty-eight years from the beginning of the reign of David, and three hundred and eighty-eight years after the separation of the Ten Tribes.

13. The privation of liberty and the miseries of bondage seem to have brought the Jewish people to a sense of their past transgressions. Unable to resist the power of man, they now placed their sole confidence in the goodness and mercy of God, who heard their supplications and looked with compassion on their sufferings. Cy'rus, king of Persia, having conquered Bab'ylon, published a decree by which the

* More properly written Nabuchodon'osor.

Why is his name mentioned with detestation in the Scripture?—11. After this epoch, what does the history exhibit? What at length happened? What became of the people? When did this event take place?—12. What is said of the kingdom of Judah? What at length happened to it? What became of the inhabitants? How long had it subsisted?—13. Unable to resist the power of man, what did they do? What did Cyrus publish?

Jewish people were set at liberty, and permitted to return to their native country, after they had languished in captivity for seventy years. The decree, moreover, allowed them to rebuild Jerusalem and their Temple, of which Cyrus gave them a new plan, and ordered that the expense of erecting it should be paid out of the royal treasury. He also restored to them all the sacred vessels which had been brought to Babylon by Nabuchodon′osor, when the Temple was destroyed. In consequence of this edict, about forty-two thousand of the Jewish people commenced their march toward their native country, where they arrived about five hundred and thirty-six years before the Christian era. From this period the Israelites, who returned from captivity, are properly called Jews, because the Tribe of Judah was by far the most powerful after their restoration to liberty.

CHAPTER IV

FROM THE RESTORATION OF THE JEWS TO THEIR NATIVE COUNTRY TO THE DESTRUCTION OF JERUSALEM BY THE ROMANS.

MANY of the Jews remained at Babylon, while those who returned to Pal′estine began the work of rebuilding the Temple with vigor and alacrity. When it began to rise above the foundation, the young manifested their delight in tears of joy, whilst the ancients wept to see how far the outlines of the new edifice fell short of the old. The progress of the work suffered a temporary obstruction, through the intrigues of their enemies and the caprice of Camby′ses, the successor of Cyrus. But in the beginning of the reign of Dari′us, the decree of Cyrus in favor of the Jews was ratified; and that prince even contributed liberally towards the expense, and in the sixth year of his reign the Temple was completed and dedicated with great solemnity.

2. Dari′us, during the remainder of his reign, continued to manifest his favor for the Jews, and their privileges were confirmed by his son Xer′xes. Their interest was still greater

What did the decree allow? What did he restore? In consequence of this edict, what was done? From this period, why are they called Jews?

CHAPTER IV.—1. When the temple began to rise above its foundation, what is said of the young? What did the progress of the work suffer? In the beginning of the reign of Darius, what was done?—2. What did Darius continue to do?

with Artaxerxes, called Assue'rus in the Scripture, through the influence of his queen, Esther, a Jewess, and also through the services of her uncle, Mar'dochai, who had discovered and frustrated a conspiracy against the king's life. From Artaxerxes, Esdras obtained liberal donations to be applied to the service of the Temple, and full power to govern the Jews. Nehemi'as was afterwards commissioned to rebuild the walls of Jerusalem, and to reform many abuses among the people. Esdras and Nehemias seem to have been the last two Governors of Judah, which probably became subject to the Governor of Syria, from whom the High-priest derived his authority.

3. From this period most of the calamities which befell the Jewish nation must be ascribed to the men who aspired to the sacerdotal dignity, through motives of ambition and avarice more than zeal for religion. For several centuries the office of High-priest was the chief object of ambition among the leading men of the state. The candidates purchased the office from the Assyrian governors, and retained it by means of money. Hence they oppressed the people with taxes that they might meet their pecuniary engagements, and the High-priest, Menela'us, sold some of the richest vessels belonging to the Temple.

4. About the year 328 B. C., Alexan'der the Great, having besieged Tyre, was greatly incensed against the Jews, because they had refused to supply his army with provisions during the siege. After the taking of Tyre he marched to Jerusalem with the intention of punishing the Jews for their disobedience to his orders. Jud'dica, the High-priest, was ordered in a dream to meet the threatening conqueror in his pontifical robes, at the head of all the priests in their proper habits, and attended by the people dressed in white garments. Alexander was struck with this religious pomp, and, approaching the High-priest with the deepest respect, embraced him with a kind of religious veneration. He told his attendants, who expressed their surprise at this submissive behavior, that he did not pay this profound respect to the High-priest, but to the God whose minister he was.

Through whose influence was their interest still greater with Artaxerxes? What did Esdras obtain from Artaxerxes? Who seem to have been the last governors of Judah?—3. From this period, to what must most of the calamities be ascribed? From whom did the candidates purchase the office?—4. What happened about the year 328? What is related of Juddica, the high-priest? What did Alexander tell his attendants?

5. Alexander, on his departure, granted to the Jews the freedom of their country, laws, and religion, and exempted them from paying tribute every seventh year; and during his whole reign they enjoyed great tranquillity; but with him the prosperous condition of their country expired. Judea was successively invaded and subdued by the Syrians and Egyptians, and the people reduced to bondage. The Jews kept the Sabbath so rigidly that they would not, on that day, engage in battle or defend themselves, although attacked by an enemy. Ptolemy, king of Egypt, having invaded Judea, took advantage of this religious impediment. He entered Jerusalem on the Sabbath-day without resistance, and carried away to Egypt one hundred thousand captives.

6. About the year 198 B. C., Anti'ochus the Great, king of Syria, after taking the city of Jerusalem, and plundering the Temple, sold forty thousand Jews to the neighboring nations, and established paganism throughout Judea. The sacrifices ceased, and for a season there existed scarcely the slightest external signs of religion. During the scene of desolation which stained the land of Judea with the blood of its best citizens, Mathathi'as, a man of the sacerdotal order, undertook the deliverance of his country. He retired into the wilderness with his five sons, surnamed the Mach'abees, and was soon joined by a great number of the Jews, who wished to avoid idolatry and religious persecution. An army was shortly raised sufficiently strong to face the enemy in the field. Mathathias, placing himself at the head of his forces, led them against the troops of Antiochus, and forced them to retreat before him, and to fly for safety beyond the boundaries of Judea.

7. After the death of Mathathias, Judas Machabeus, his eldest son, was placed at the head of the army. The achievements of this distinguished man, the deliverance of his country from foreign oppression, his talents, bravery, and patriotism, have ranked him with the most illustrious heroes of Greece and Rome. His patriotism was only surpassed by his zeal for religion. Having vanquished the enemies of his country, his first care was to repair the devastations they had

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5. What was granted to the Jews by Alexander? By whom was Judea now invaded? What did Ptolemy, king of Egypt, do?—6. What was done by Antiochus the Great? During the scene of desolation, what did Mathathias undertake? Where did he retire?—7. Who was now placed at the head of the army? What is said of his achievements?

caused. The Temple was in a desolate condition, the altar and sanctuary profaned, the gates burned, and court overgrown with shrubs. Having appointed priests of unblemished character for the performance of the sacrifices, he repaired the holy places, threw down the altar on which the idol of Jupiter stood, and erected another, dedicating it with great joy and religious festivity. The sacred veil was again hung up, and the sacred vessels, golden candlesticks, and altar of perfumes were again replaced. Judas Machabeus having thus, by many signal victories, delivered his country from bondage and idolatry, was at last slain in battle, 157 B. C.

8. The brothers of Judas, pursuing the advantage already gained, completely established the independence of their country; the republican form of government was afterwards changed to that of a monarchy. John Hyrca'nus, the son of Simon Machabeus, united in his person the office of high-priest and that of commander-in-chief of the army, and, possessing all the abilities requisite for the military and pontifical offices, he vanquished the enemies of his country and firmly established his authority. His sons assumed the title as well as the power of kings and the succession remained in his family for about one hundred and twenty-six years. The unfortunate dissensions of this family terminated ultimately in the conquest of Judea by Pom'pey the Great, who took Jerusalem and subjugated the Jewish nation to the dominion of the Romans, 63 B. C.

9. After this event, the Jewish monarchy was reëstablished by the favor and under the protection of the Romans, who placed Herod the Great,* son of Antip'ater, on the throne of David. This prince demolished the old Temple of Jerusalem, and rebuilt it in a magnificent manner. He reigned with great splendor, but was cruel and despotic. His public life exhibits a continued scene of battles, tyranny, and violence. His reign is rendered memorable by the birth of our Divine Lord and Savior, JESUS CHRIST.† When this remarkable event took place, the Ma'gi, or Wise Men,

* The first foreigner that swayed the sceptre of Judah.

† This great event occurred on the 25th of December.

Of the temple? What did he throw down? How did Judas Machabeus die?—8. What is said of the brothers of Judas? Of John Hyrcanus? What did his sons assume? Who conquered Judea?—9. After this, by whom was the Jewish monarchy re-established? In whose favor? What did this prince do? For what is his reign memorable?

as the Scripture calls them, came from the east to Jerusalem to adore the new-born king of the Jews, and desired to know where he was to be found. Herod, aware that he had no other title to the crown of Judea than that which the Romans had given him, was much alarmed at this inquiry which was made about another King. He therefore dismissed the Wise Men with a strict injunction to bring him back an account of the Child when they had found it, that he might go, as he pretended, to adore it. The Wise Men, having paid their adoration to the Infant at the manger of Bethlehem, were admonished, in their sleep, to return by another way to their country. Herod, finding himself thus deceived by the sages, with cruelty that would shock the most savage barbarian, gave orders that every male child born at Bethlehem within the last two years should be put to death. This cruel king died in the first year of the life of Christ, or the fourth before the common era.

10. During the reign of Herod II, the illustrious St. John the Baptist* was beheaded, because he reproved the monarch for the crime of marrying his brother's wife. It was also during the same reign that our Blessed Savior's Crucifixion, Resurrection, and Ascension took place. In the reign of his son, Herod Agrippa I, the Apostle, St. James, suffered martyrdom, and St. Peter was imprisoned; but the unhappy monarch himself died a miserable death, being devoured by worms. Before his son, Agrippa II, who was the last king of Judea, St. Paul pleaded in defence of the Gospel. From this period the Governors of Judea were appointed by the Roman emperors, and in this condition it remained until the final extinction of the Jewish nation.

11. The rapacity and cruelty of Florus, the last Governor of Judea, caused a rebellion of the Jews, in which one hundred and fifty thousand persons are said to have perished, A. D. 66. The unhappy Jerusalem was now hastening to its downfall, the sanguinary and violent factions among the Jews themselves contributing toward this event. In the reign of Vespasian, Ti'tus, the Roman general, was sent into

* He died about a year before the death of our Lord.

When this event took place, what is related? Finding himself deceived, what orders did he give?—10. Why was St. John beheaded? What took place in the reign of Herod the Great? From this period how were the governors appointed?—11. What did the rapacity of Florus cause? In the reign of Vespasian, what took place?

Judea to suppress the revolt of the Jews. He commenced the siege of the city about the festival of Easter, at which time an immense multitude of people was shut up within the walls. With so much ardor did Titus conduct the operations of the siege, that the city was taken within the space of five months, and so completely demolished that not a stone was left upon a stone, except a part of the western wall and three towers preserved for the Roman garrison left in Judea.

12. The last siege of Jerusalem was attended with scenes of carnage, famine, disease, and desperation, far more horrible than any to be met with in the annals of human misery. During the calamitous progress of the siege, Titus displayed many instances of humanity towards the besieged, and made every effort for the preservation of the city and Temple, but in vain; and viewing the disasters that befell the nation, he confessed that he was only the instrument of divine vengeance. The magnificent Temple of the Jews perished with the general wreck of the nation, thus literally fulfilling the predicitions of our Blessed Lord concerning the utter destruction of Jerusalem. This memorable event took place A. D. 70.*

13. According to the most accurate calculation, about eleven hundred thousand Jews perished during the siege of their capital, and ninety-seven thousand, who were made prisoners, were sold as slaves to different nations. Since that time the descendants of those who survived the dissolution of the Jewish nation have been wandering from nation to nation, objects of contempt rather than of commiseration. In but few countries have they enjoyed the same privileges as those among whom they are permitted to reside.

14. **Antiquities.**—The country of the ancient Hebrews was distinguished by several names, such as the land of Canaan, the Holy Land, Palestine, Judea, etc.; and the people themselves were variously called the people of God, Israelites, and Jews. After the entrance of the Israelites into the land of Canaan, it was divided into twelve different portions,

* For a full account of Sacred History, see the Holy Bible and the works of Josephus.

How long did the siege last? What is said of the destruction of the city?—12. What is said of the siege of Jerusalem? Of Titus? Of the temple? When did this event take place?—13. How many Jews perished during the siege? How many were sold as slaves? Since that time what is said of the inhabitants?—14. What is said of the country? How was it divided?

which were assigned to the twelve several tribes into which the people were separated.

15. **Remains of Ancient Works.**—Among the ancient works of Palestine, Jacob's well, the pools of Solomon, Gi'hon, and Bethsai'da, and sepulchral monuments, are the most remarkable. Jacob's well is highly venerated on account of its great antiquity. It is hewn out of the solid rock, about one hundred feet in depth and nine in diameter, and is at present covered with a stone vault.

The pools of Solomon, supposed to have been constructed by the order of that monarch, appear to have been a work of immense cost and labor. They are three in a row, so situated that the water of the uppermost may fall into the second, of the second to the third. They are of equal breadth, being about ninety paces each; though they vary in length, the longest being two hundred and twenty paces. The pools of Gihon and Bethsaida are similar works, and may be ranked among the most stately ruins. The sepulchral monuments are to be found in various parts of the country. The most splendid remains of this kind are the royal sepulchres within the walls of Jerusalem; they are all hewn out of the solid marble rock, and contain several spacious apartments.

16. **Cities.**—Of these, Jerusalem, the metropolis of the country and the centre of the Jewish worship, was the most celebrated, and no place in the world recalls so many hallowed associations. The city was built on several hills, the largest of which was Mount Si'on. It was enlarged and embellished by David, Solomon, and other kings. On the east or lower city was Mount Mori'ah, on which stood the magnificent temple of Solomon. After the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, a new city was built in the reign of Adrian, the Roman emperor, and called Æ'lia Capitoli'na, but there was a considerable alteration in the site. Mount Sion, the principal quarter of the ancient city, was not comprised within the limits of the new one. It subsists at the present time in a deplorable condition, inhabited by Turks, Jews, and Christians. Ga'za and As'calon were the other cities most noted.

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15. What are some of the ancient works of Palestine? What is said of Jacob's well? Of Solomon's pools? What are the pools Gihon and Bethsaida? Which are the most magnificent of the sepulchral monuments?—16. Which was the most celebrated city? On what was it built? When was a new city built? What are the other most noted cities?

17. **Manners and Customs.**—The rite of circumcision has distinguished the Jewish people from the earliest period of their history. It was always accompanied with great feasting and other demonstrations of joy. At this time the child was named in the presence of the company assembled, among whom bread and wine were distributed.

The diet of the Jews, except on festivals, seems to have been very plain. Bread, water, and vinegar were in common use. Honey was esteemed a peculiar delicacy, and the milk of goats was considered excellent for food.

Their amusements seem to have consisted chiefly in social repasts, music, and dancing, which partook of a religious character. Their mourning for the death of friends was expressed by rending their garments, tearing their hair, heaping ashes upon their heads, wearing sackcloth, and lying on the ground. From the pains they took to provide a place of burial for themselves and their descendants, it is evident that they considered it a heavy calamity to be denied a burial, and a favor to be interred among their ancestors. Their sepulchres were on their own land, and were often cut out of a rock.

18. **Arts, Language, and Literature.**—The language of the Jews was the Hebrew, the genius of which is pure, primitive, and natural; and it is highly probable that they had very early the art of writing. The materials on which they first wrote were plates of stone; they afterwards used what was called rolls; these are supposed to have been a kind of parchment. The arts in which they most excelled were those of war, husbandry, poetry, and music. Their situation in the midst of enemies made them a warlike people. Their arms of defence were the shield, helmet, coat of mail, and breastplate; their offensive weapons were the two-edged sword, javelin, sling, and the bow and arrow.

19. The literary productions of the Hebrews are collected in the sacred books of the Old Testament, in which we can find more eloquence, more moral and historical truth, more poetry,—in a word, more beauties than we could gather from all other books together, of whatever country or language. Aside from its supernatural character, this marvel-

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17. What rite has distinguished the Jewish people? What is said of their diet? Of what did their amusements consist? How was their mourning for the dead expressed?—18. What is said of their language? On what did they write? What did their situation make them? What were their arms?—19. What is said of the Old Testament?

lous volume stands alone among the literary monuments of the world for the sublimity of its doctrine and the simplicity of its style. It is the book of all centuries, countries, and conditions, and affords the best solution of the most mysterious problems concerning God, man, and the universe. When perused in the right spirit it cultivates the taste, it elevates the mind, and it nourishes the soul with the word of life. It has, in short, inspired the best productions of human genius.

Danube River
Rome
EUXINE SEA
CASPIAN SEA
Orus River
GREECE
ASIA MINOR
Sardis
LYDIA
ARMENIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CRETE
RHODES
CYPRUS
SYRIA
Tyre
MESOPOTAMIA
ASSYRIA
Nineveh
MEDIA
Ecbatana
Euphrates R.
Tigris River
Babylon
BABYLONIA
CHALDEA
Meggido
Jerusalem
EGYPT
Alexandria
Pelusium
Heliopolis
Memphis
L. MŒRIS
Thebes
Persepolis
PERSIAN GULF
ARABIA
RED SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
ASSYRIA, BABYLON, EGYPT,
B.C. 2217.
AND GREECE, CHAPS. I & II.

BOOK II

THE GREAT EMPIRES OF ANTIQUITY

CHAPTER I

A GLANCE AT ASSYRIA AND BABYLON.

ASSYR'IA the first of the four great empires of antiquity, derive dits name from Ash'ur, the son of Shem, who is said to have been the founder of Nin'eveh, its capital. The foundation of Babylon is ascribed to Nimrod, the grandson of Ham, who is believed by many to be the same as Be'lus of secular history. These two cities are supposed to have been founded about the same time, shortly after the dispersion of mankind; but for many ages their history is involved in obscurity. It is commonly supposed that Assyria and Babylon were originally two distinct kingdoms, and continued separate until Babylon was conquered by Ni'nus and annexed to the Assyrian empire.

2. Ninus is represented as a great and powerful sovereign; he is said to have built, or at least to have enlarged and embellished, the city of Nineveh, which stood upon the eastern bank of the Ti'gris. His design was to immortalize his name by the building of a city which, in point of extent and magnificence, could not be surpassed by any other in after times. Nor was he much deceived in his view. Nineveh was laid out in the form of an oblong square. It measured eighteen miles and three-quarters in length, eleven and one-quarter in breadth, and sixty miles in circumference. The walls were one hundred feet high, and of such thickness that three chariots might stand abreast upon them with ease;

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of Assyria? Who founded Babylon? What is supposed concerning Assyria and Babylon?—2. What is said of Ninus? What was his design? Describe Nineveh.

and they were fortified and adorned with fifteen hundred towers, two hundred feet high.*

3. Ninus having made extensive conquests married Semir'amis, who succeeded him on the throne. She is described as a woman of surpassing wit and beauty, boundless ambition, and extraordinary ability for war and government. Semiramis enlarged Babylon and rendered it the most splendid city in the world.

4. The description of Babylon, given by ancient historians, seems almost incredible. The walls are said to have been eighty-seven feet in thickness and three hundred and fifty in height. They were drawn round the city in the form of an exact square, each side of which was fifteen miles in length, all built of brick cemented together with bitumen. On every side of this great square there were twenty-five gates, which were all made of solid brass. From these twenty-five gates the same number of streets ran in lines parallel to the gates on the opposite side of the wall, thus forming fifty streets, each fifteen miles long, and one hundred and fifty feet broad. Around these squares, on every side, stood the houses, all built three or four stories high, and beautified, towards the streets, with all kinds of ornaments. The space within the middle of each square was vacant ground laid out in beautiful gardens.†

5. Semiramis, after a brilliant reign of forty-two years, left the throne to her son Ninyas. From the time of Ninyas to the overthrow of the monarchy under Sardanapa'lus, a period of several centuries, little or nothing is known respecting the history of Assyria and Babylon.

The name of Sardanapalus is almost a proverbial reproach. He is said to have so degraded himself that he adopted the dress and occupation of a female, and to have passed his life in the most disgraceful effeminacy and voluptuousness. At length Ar'baces, governor of Media, with Bel'esis, governor of the

*To-day no imposing ruins mark the gloomy site of Nineveh. Heaps of earth or grass-grown mounds, revealing not a trace of building, are all that tell you that you are standing where stood that "exceeding great city of three days journey." See Myers' *Remains of Lost Empires*, chap. iv.

†The mighty Babylon of old now lies in crumbled heaps of ruins, in size mountain-like. Enormous mounds and fragments of lofty walls are all that remain of its glory and grandeur. See Myers' *Remains of Lost Empires*, chap. viii.

3. What is said of Semiramis?—4. Describe Babylon.—5. How long did Semiramis reign? What is said of Sardanapalus?

BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
LYDIA
ARMENIA
Halys
L. Van
TAURUS MTS.
CILICIA
PADAN-RAM
Dur Sarrukin
Carchemish
Tarsus
Cyprus
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
LEBANON
Euphrates
MESOPOTAMIA
Nineveh
Calah
ASSYRIA
Asshur
Urumiah L.
MEDIA
Tyre
Damascus
CANAAN
Jerusalem
Sais
Rephia
Memphis
EGYPT
Nile
Thebes
RED SEA
Agade
BABYLONIA
Babylon
Nippur
Tigris
SUMER
CHALDEA
Ur
Eridu
Susa
ELAM
ARABIA
PERSIA
PERSIAN GULF
Oxus
SOGDIANA
BACTRIANA
ARIA
ARIANA
Indus
ARABIAN SEA
ASSYRIAN EMPIRE
About 660 B. C.
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Scale of Miles.
30°
40°
50°
60°
70°
20°

city of Babylon, and several others, disgusted with his inglorious and shameful life, formed a conspiracy against him. Sardanapalus having sustained a defeat, in order to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, caused a pile of wood to be made in his palace, and burnt himself, with all his women and treasures.

6. On the ruins of this vast empire were founded three new kingdoms—Media under Arbaces, Babylon under Belesis, and Assyria under Ninus the younger. Ninus was succeeded by Tiglathpile'ser, who invaded Judah during the reign of Ahaz, and took possession of that part of the kingdom of Israel which lies east of the Jordan. Under the reign of his successor, Shalmane'ser, an end was put to the kingdom of Israel, and its inhabitants were carried into captivity. The next sovereign was Senna'cherib, who laid siege to Jerusalem in the reign of Hezeki'ah, but was compelled to return to his own dominions in disgrace, having lost 185,000 men of his army, who were destroyed in a miraculous manner in one night. The fourth king, Esarhaddon, defeated Manasseh, king of Judah, and carried him captive into Assyria.

7. After the death of Esarhad'don, Nabopolas'sar or Nebuchadnez'zar, king of Babylon, assisted by Cyax'ares, king of Media, besieged Nineveh, and having taken it, killed Saracus the king, and utterly destroyed that mighty city, and put an end to the Assyrian monarchy. He was succeeded by his son, Nebuchadnezzar II, who took Jerusalem and carried the Jews captive to Babylon. The particulars of this sovereign's reign are recorded in the book of Daniel. God, to punish his pride, reduced him to a state of insanity, but, after wandering in the forest and feeding on grass like a wild beast for twelve months, he again recovered his mind, and being restored to his throne, by a solemn edict, published throughout his dominions the astonishing things that God had wrought in him.

8. During the reign of Belshaz'zar,* who succeeded to the throne a few years after the death of Nebuchadnez'zar, the

* Also written Balt'has'sar.

What was the end of Sardanapalus?—6. What empires were now founded? What was done in the reign of Shalmaneser? Who was the next sovereign, and what did he do? What did Esarhaddon do?—7. What happened during the reign of Nabopolassar? What did Nebuchadnezzar do? How did God punish him?—8. What was done during the reign of Belshazzar?

Persians under Cyrus, after a siege of two years, by turning the course of the Euphrates, entered the city of Babylon through the dry channel, and took it while the inhabitants were engaged in feasting and riot. The impious Belshazzar was slain, and with him ended the Babylonian empire, after it had continued for about two hundred and ten years.

9. **Antiquities.**—The government both of Assyria and Babylon was strictly despotic and the crown hereditary. All power was centred in the king; decrees emanated from him, and he even claimed the worship which belonged only to the divinity. The laws of the empire were in general vague and uncertain, depending wholly upon the will of the sovereign; but there was one, however, fixed and irrevocable, which obliged all, particularly the poor, to marry. And in this a singular custom prevailed. No man had any power over his own daughters, but as soon as they were marriageable, they were put up at auction; and the price obtained for the more beautiful was assigned as a dowry for the more homely. In consequence of this curious practice, all the young women were disposed of in marriage; the beautiful for their charms, and the homely for their wealth.

10. The Babylonians, and particularly the Chaldeans, were early famed for their learning. They were the first who cultivated astronomy and discovered the exact motion of the planets; they pretended to be able to foretell future events from the heavenly bodies, knowledge which was embodied in the so-called science of astrology. They built temples to the stars as being the subordinate agents of the divine power, and by worshipping them they hoped to obtain the good will of the Deity.

From this they descended, by a natural process, to the worship of objects on earth as the representatives of the stars or the Deity. It is evident that this was the origin of idol worship, from the fact that the names of the principal gods of the heathens in general are those of the sun, moon, and the five primary planets—Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, and Venus. The horrid custom of sacrificing human victims to conciliate their gods was practised by the Babylonians, and from them it was communicated to the surrounding nations.

What was the end of Belshazzar?—9. What is said of the government and laws of Assyria and Babylon? What singular custom prevailed?—10. What is said of the learning of the Babylonians and Chaldeans? To what did they build temples? What is said concerning the origin of idol worship?

BLACK SEA
CAUCASUS MTS.
CASPIAN SEA
Aral Sea
Oxus
LYDIA
Halys
ARMENIA
M. ARARAT
SOGDIANA
TAURUS MTS.
CILICIA
Carchemish
Nineveh
Calah
BACTRIANA
Sidon
Hamath
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Damascus
Tyre
Assur
MEDIA
Rhagæ
Ecbatana
ARIA
Megiddo
BABYLONIA
Babylon
Borsippa
Nippur
Euphrates
ELAM
ARIANA
Jerusalem
Ur
Persepolis
EGYPT
ARABIA
PERSIA
PERSIAN GULF
Nile
RED SEA
ARABIAN SEA
MEDIAN AND BABYLONIAN
EMPIRES ABOUT 600 B.C.
Median
Babylonian
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Scale of Miles.

The Babylonians applied themselves only to the more useful arts. Their immense buildings prove them to have been well skilled in architecture and geometry. They never attained to any superior excellence in painting and statuary; and music and poetry were probably but little attended to.*

CHAPTER II

THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

PERSIA was the second of the four great empires of antiquity. Its history, prior to the reign of Cy'rus the Great, is involved in fable and obscurity. It was originally called E'lam, and the inhabitants Elamites, who were the descendants of Shem. We are informed by the Scriptures that one of the kings of Elam conquered the king of Sodom, but was pursued and defeated by A'braham. In the early ages it was of very limited extent, but under the reign of Cyrus, who was the founder of the great Persian empire, it became the most powerful and extensive monarchy in the world, comprising Persia, Media, Babylonia, Syria, and Asia Minor; and to these Egypt was added by Camby'ses.

2. Cyrus is represented as a prince of excellent character. He obtained the surname of Great, from his heroic actions and splendid achievements. Having subdued all the nations from the Ægean sea to the Euphrates, he, together with his uncle Cyax'ares, the second king of the Medes, took Babylon and conquered the Assyrian empire. After the death of Cyaxares, Cyrus united the two kingdoms and reigned over them for seven years, in the first of which he published the famous edict for the return of the Jews and the rebuilding of Jerusalem.

3. Herodotus, Xen'ophon, and other famous authors, differ materially in the accounts they give of the exploits and character of Cyrus. According to Xenophon, Cyrus possessed

* For a fuller account of Assyria and Babylon, see Fredet's *Ancient History.*

To what did the Babylonians apply themselves?

CHAPTER II.—1. What is said of Persia? What did it become in the reign of Cyrus?—2. What is said of Cyrus? What did he do? What edict did he publish?—3. How do Herodotus and Xenophon differ in their accounts of Cyrus?

all the ability of an able and illustrious sovereign, with all the more amiable virtues that adorn humanity; and, according to the same author, he died like a philosopher, discoursing of death with tranquillity, and giving the most admirable instruction to his children, by which to form their character and regulate their future conduct. On the other hand, we are told by Herodotus, that Cyrus, having undertaken an expedition against the Scythians, was surprised and slain by a stratagem of the enemy. The account given by Xenophon has been followed by Rol'lin and other modern writers, yet it is supposed by some that it was not the design of that ancient author to exhibit a faithful record of facts, but rather to delineate the model of a perfect prince and a well organized government.

4. Cyrus was succeeded by his son, Camby'ses, who was arbitrary and cruel. The conquest of Egypt was his principal achievement. He made himself master of Pelusium by placing in front of his army a great number of those animals considered sacred by the Egyptians, who, not daring to injure them, made no opposition to the Persians. On the death of Cambyses, Smerdis usurped the crown; but after enjoying the regal dignity for seven months, he was assassinated, and Dari'us was elected to fill the vacant throne. The history of Persia, from the reign of this sovereign until the overthrow of the monarchy, is much connected with that of Greece.

5. Darius was succeeded by his son Xerx'es, who conducted the second invasion of Greece, but returned to his own dominions in shame and disgrace, after sustaining a series of defeats and immense loss. He was succeeded by his son Artaxer'xes, who enjoyed a long and peaceful reign. The only sovereigns of distinction who reigned after this period, were Artaxerxes II, and Darius Codoma'nus, the last of the Persian monarchs. Codomanus was defeated by Alexander the Great, and finally assassinated; and with his death the ancient empire terminated, B. C. 331.

6. **Antiquities.**—The government of Persia was an absolute monarchy. The crown was hereditary, and generally bestowed on the eldest son of the deceased king. The sover-

4. Who succeeded Cyrus? How did he make himself master of Pelusium? On the death of Cambyses, who usurped the throne?—5. What is said of Xerxes? Who was the last of the Persian monarchs, and what was his end?—6. What is said of the government of Persia?

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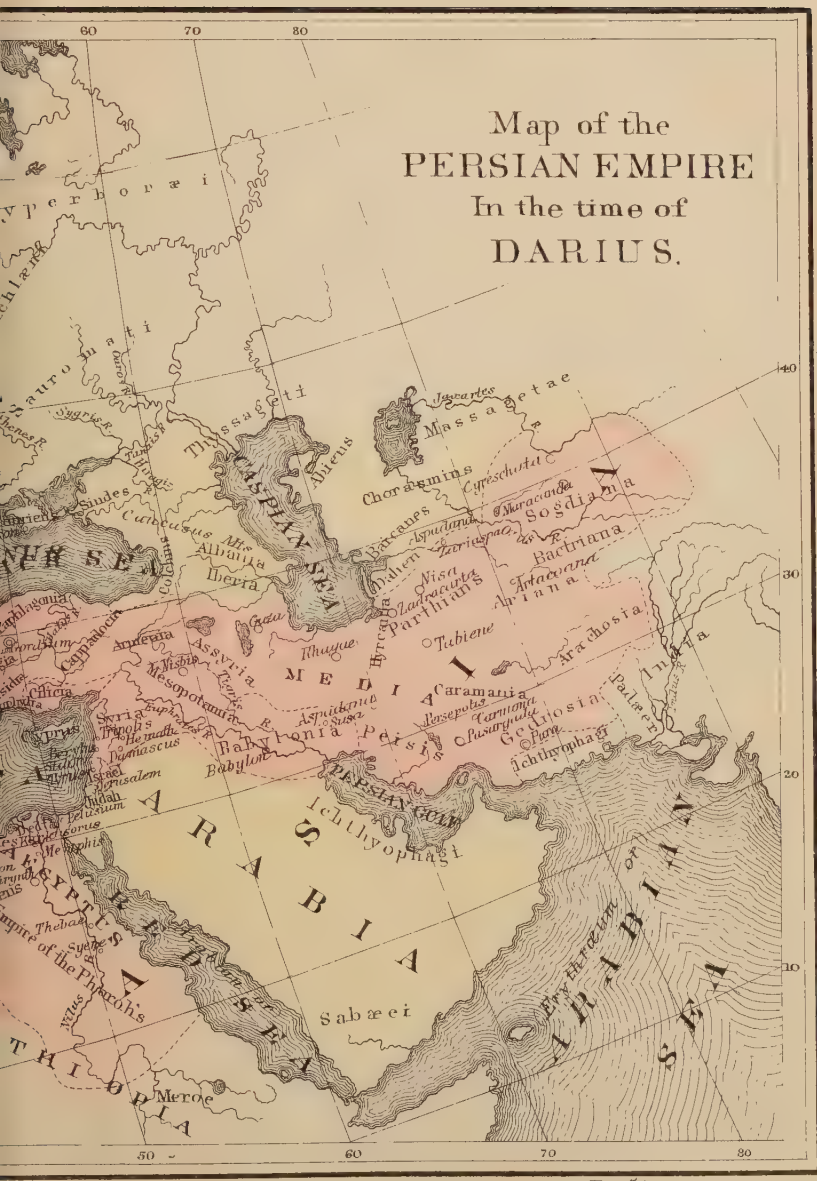

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eigns received almost divine honors from their subjects. No one could approach the seat of majesty without prostrating himself upon the ground, or remain in his presence without holding his hands within his sleeves. A violation of this ceremony was punished with death. The royal palace at Persep'olis was indeed magnificent. The ceiling and the walls of the apartments were covered with ivory, silver, gold, or amber; the throne also was of fine gold adorned with precious stones.*

7. The Persians are said to have paid more particular regard to the education of their children than any other nation. We are told that a son was never admitted into the presence of his father until he had arrived at the age of five years, lest the parent might be too heavily afflicted by the loss, if the child should die before that period. At the age of five years, the children, at least of the higher classes of the state, were placed under the care of learned and virtuous masters, who bestowed on their pupils the utmost attention.

8. The mode of punishment among the Persians was generally severe. It consisted in cutting off the right hand, decapitation, pressing to death between two large stones, and so on. The most hard and inhuman was that of fastening the culprit in such a manner that he was unable to move hand or foot. His face, exposed to the rays of the sun, was smeared with honey, which invited innumerable swarms of flies and wasps to torment him; the executioners compelled him, by thrusting sharp instruments into his eyes, to receive nourishment, for the purpose of prolonging his agonies. We are told of one victim, who lived seventeen days under such brutal torments. The Persians were trained to all the military exercises, but particularly in the use of the bow. They never fought in the night, nor used any stratagem independent of their valor.

* Even in its ruins Persepolis is magnificent. "Not only youthful travellers glowing with imagination," writes Vaux, "but those of sober judgment, matured by the experience of many years, seem, as they approach these venerable monuments, to be inspired with the genius of Eastern romance, and their respective languages scarcely furnish epithets capable of expressing, with an adequate energy, the astonishment and admiration excited by such stupendous objects." See Myers' *Remains of Lost Empires*, chap. xii.

What is said of those who approached the sovereign? Describe the palace of Persepolis.—7. To what did they pay peculiar regard? What custom prevailed?—8. What is said of the mode of punishment? Describe one severe form.

9. Their religion was idolatrous, but not so gross as that of some of the surrounding nations. They professed to worship the one all-wise and omnipotent God; but they held fire to be holy, and the purest symbol of the divine nature. In connection with this they adored the sun, and paid a superstitious regard to other elements, such as earth, air, and water. In ancient times they were destitute of temples, and erected altars for the preservation of the sacred fire on the tops of the mountains. At length Zoroas'ter persuaded them, for the sake of convenience, to build over each a pyreum or fire temple. The priests were called Ma'gi, and were held in great esteem on account of their learning.

CHAPTER III

THE PHŒNICIANS.

THE Phœni'cians were among the most remarkable and among the earliest to be civilized of the nations of antiquity. In the Scriptures they are styled Canaanites, and they seem to have been a commercial people in the time of Abraham. Their two principal cities, and among the most ancient we read of in history, were Ty're and Si'don. The Phœnicians are the reputed inventors of glass, purple dye, letters, and coinage; they are regarded as the earliest navigators and merchants in the world; they carried on trade, not only over all the coasts of the Mediterranean, but even visited the mines of Britain, from which they obtained tin.

2. To Hi'ram, king of Tyre, both David and Solomon applied, when proposing to build the Temple at Jerusalem. He furnished them not only with precious materials, but also with a great number of workmen. The Phœnicians sent out a number of colonies to Cyprus, Rhodes, Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain. The foundation of Carthage is attributed to Di'do, with a company of adventurers; she was the sister of Pygma'lion, king of Tyre. The city of Tyre sustained two memorable sieges, and was twice taken—first by Nebuchadnezzar, and again by Alexander the Great.

9. What is said of their religion? What did they adore?

CHAPTER III.—1. What is said of the Phœnicians? Of what were they inventors?—2. What is said of Hiram? Where did they send colonies? What is said of Tyre?

CHAPTER IV

EGYPT.

EGYPT holds a conspicuous place in history, on account of its early civilization and high attainment in the arts. It was considered by the ancients as the most renowned school of wisdom and politics, and the source from which most of the arts and sciences are derived. Even the most illustrious men of Greece, such as Ho'mer and Pla'to, Lycur'gus and So'lon, travelled into Egypt to complete their studies, and to draw thence whatever was rare and valuable in learning.

2. The ancient history of this country is greatly involved in obscurity. Historians, however, unanimously agree that Miz'raim, the son of Ham, was the founder of the Egyptian monarchy; he is supposed to be the same as Me'nes, who is said to have instituted the worship of the gods and the ceremonies of the sacrifices; he was succeeded on the throne by his posterity for several generations.* Egypt was next governed by a race of foreign princes from Arabia, styled Shepherd Kings, who invaded the country, and retained possession of the greater portion of it for the space of two hundred and sixty years.

3. The ancient Egyptians seem never to have been a warlike people. Almost the only king of the country whose name stands recorded as a great conqueror is Sesos'tris, who is said to have maintained a numerous army, and conquered a great part of Asia. Little, however, is known of his achievements, or the extent of his conquests. Towards the close of his life he is said to have renounced the profession of arms, and to have devoted himself to the internal improvement of his kingdom. Having become blind in old age, he died by his own hand, after a reign of thirty-three years.

* Another explanation of the word Mizraim is that it means the "two Mazors," "two Egypts" or " two lands." That is, the union of Upper and Lower Egypt.

CHAPTER IV.—1. What is said of Egypt? How was it considered by the ancients?—2. Who was the founder of the Egyptian monarchy? By whom was Egypt next governed?—3. What is said of the ancient Egyptians? of Sesostris?

4. The next sovereign who is particularly distinguished in the history of this country was Nechus, styled in the Scriptures, Pharaoh Necho. He patronized navigation, and fitted out a fleet, which, leaving the Red Sea, sailed around the coast of Africa, and returned to Egypt through the Straits of Gibraltar. He waged a successful war against the Medes and Babylonians, and defeated Josiah, king of Judah, in the battle of Megiddo, and imposed an annual tribute upon the country.

5. Egypt was invaded by the Persians under Cambyses, about the year 525 before the Christian era. The cities of Pelusium and Memphis were taken, and the whole country reduced to a province of the Persian monarchy. Egypt was wrested from the dominion of Persia by Alexander the Great, and after his death it fell to the share of Ptolemy. Under this monarch and his successors the country regained its ancient lustre, and rose to eminence in science and commerce. The dynasty of the Ptolemies continued from the death of Alexander to that of Cleopatra, embracing a period of two hundred and ninety-three years.

6. Ptolemy Lagus, surnamed also Soter, is said to have been the natural son of Philip, king of Macedon, and half brother of Alexander the Great. At the time of Alexander's death he was governor of Egypt, and afterwards became king of the country. He was a man of great ability, equally eminent as a general and a statesman, distinguished for his learning, and a munificent patron of literature.

He founded the famous library of Alexandria, established a museum or academy, and erected the celebrated watch-tower of Pharos, which was reckoned by some as one of the seven wonders of the world. He built a number of new cities, encouraged commerce and agriculture, and conquered Syria. He died after a prosperous reign of thirty-nine years.

7. Ptolemy Lagus was succeeded by his son Ptolemy Philadel'phus, whose reign, like that of his father, was useful and prosperous. He patronized commerce and navigation, founded several cities, and erected magnificent buildings. His court was a seat of learning, politeness, and the arts, and was resorted to by men of genius. During his reign

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4. Who was the next sovereign, and what is said of him?—5. Who invaded Egypt? By whom was it wrested from the Persians? How long did the dynasty of the Ptolemies continue?—6. What is said of Ptolemy Lagus? What did he establish?—7. By whom was Ptolemy Lagus succeeded? What is said of him?

the celebrated version of the Old Testament into Greek, called the Sep′tuagint, was made for the use of the Jews, who were settled at that time in Alexandria.

8. Ptolemy Euer′getes, the son of the late monarch, who succeeded to the throne, was a warlike prince, but also a patron of learning, and spared no pains to enrich his library. In the early part of his reign he carried on a severe though successful war with Anti′ochus, king of Syria. He was succeeded by his son Ptolemy Philo′pator, a sanguinary tyrant, whose reign was distinguished for its cruel persecution of the Jews. Having invaded Judea, and advanced as far as Jerusalem, he attempted to enter by force into the holy place of the Jewish temple, into which none but the High-priest was allowed to enter, and that only once a year. Being forcibly prevented from committing this sacrilege, he returned to Egypt, and resolved to wreak his vengeance on the Jews, who had enjoyed the favor of his predecessors.

9. He published a decree, that all the Jews within his dominions should abjure their religion and sacrifice to the gods of Egypt, under the severest penalties. Only about nine hundred, however, were found to apostatize. After this, he ordered all the Jews in Alexandria to assemble in a place of public diversion, called the Hip′podrome, where he had collected five hundred elephants for the destruction of that devoted people; but the enraged animals, rushing among the crowd, crushed to death a greater number of the spectators than of the Jews. Yet it is computed that about forty thousand of the latter perished on that occasion.

10. The history of the remaining Ptolemies presents little that is interesting. For the most part, their reigns were unhappy, abounding in crimes and calamities. Ptolemy Diony′sius was the last king of Egypt. He succeeded to the throne at the early age of thirteen years, and reigned in conjunction with his sister, the celebrated Cleopa′tra, who aspired to undivided authority. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy was slain, and Cleopatra assumed the sole government. Her history is connected with that of Julius Cæsar and Mark Antony; she finally caused her own death by poison, in order to avoid being led captive to Rome to grace the triumph of Octavius. After her death, Egypt became a Roman province.

8. What is said of Ptolemy Euergetes? By whom was he succeeded? What did he attempt?—9. What did he publish? How did he attempt to destroy the Jews?—10. Who was the last king of Egypt? What is said of Cleopatra? What did Egypt become?

CHAPTER V

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE EGYPTIANS.

A STRIKING resemblance with regard to government, religion, customs, and character, is said to exist between the ancient Egyptians and many of the oriental nations, particularly the Chinese. The government was an hereditary monarchy, but the power of the sovereign was restrained by the influence of the priests. At daybreak in the morning, the king arose and read the several letters that he received the preceding day. He then went to the temple to attend the offering of sacrifice, and to assist at the prayers pronounced aloud by the High-priest, who invoked the blessing of the gods upon the prince, that he might govern his people with clemency and justice. The laws prescribed not only the quality but also quantity of food for the royal table; as for the quality, it was of the most common kind, because, in Egypt, eating was designed not to please the palate, but to satisfy the wants of nature.

2. The laws of Egypt were generally based upon the strictest justice. Wilful murder was punished with death, whatever might be the condition of the murdered person, whether he was free-born or otherwise. Perjury was also punished with death, because that crime insulted the majesty of the gods, by invoking their name to a falsehood, and broke the strongest ties of human society, namely, sincerity and veracity. No man was allowed to be useless to the state; and every one was obliged to enter his name on the public register, and give an account of his profession and means of support. Polygamy was allowed in Egypt except to the priests, who could marry but one woman. A revolting custom prevailed among the Egyptians, which permitted the marriage of brother and sister; hence we find that the queens of the Ptolemies were generally their sisters.

3. In Egypt, the greatest respect was paid to old age. The young were obliged to rise up for the old, and on every occasion to resign to them the most honorable seats. The

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CHAPTER V.—1. What is said of the manners and customs of the ancient Egyptians? Of the government? Of the king? What did the laws prescribe?—2. On what were the laws based? What was the punishment of murder? Of perjury? What was every man obliged to do? What was allowed? What custom prevailed?—3. To what was great respect paid?

virtue, however, in the highest esteem among the Egyptians, was gratitude; and it has been said of them, that they were the most grateful of men. But it was especially towards their kings that they prided themselves on evincing their gratitude. That ancient people honored their rulers while living as so many visible representatives of the Deity, and after their death lamented them as the fathers of their country.

4. Never was any people more superstitious than the Egyptians; they had a great number of gods of different orders and degrees. Among these, Osi'ris and I'sis were the most universally adored. Besides these gods they worshipped the ox, the wolf, the dog, the crocodile, the ibis or the cat, and many other degrading objects. The willful killing of one of these animals was punished with death. Diodo'rus relates the circumstances of a Roman, who fell a victim to the fury of the populace of Alexandria, for having accidentally killed a cat. The Egyptians held the absurd doctrine of the transmigration of souls; and believed that at the death of a man his soul entered into some other human body. If he had been vicious, his soul was confined in the body of some beast to expiate his former transgressions; but after some centuries it would again animate another human body.

5. No people paid greater respect to the remains of the dead than did the Egyptians. As soon as any person in a family died, all the relatives and friends laid aside their usual habits, and put on mourning, which they continued to wear for forty days or longer, according to the quality of the person. The body was then embalmed, by which process it was preserved from decay; after this it was put into a kind of open chest, and placed upright against the wall of the dwelling or sepulchre; so that children seeing the bodies of their ancestors thus preserved, recalled to mind those virtues for which the public had honored them, and were excited to imitate their example.

6. The power of the laws extended even beyond the grave. Before any one could be admitted into the sacred asylum of the tomb, he was obliged to undergo a solemn trial; and this circumstance, in Egyptian funerals, is one of the most remarkable to be found in ancient history. The whole life

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What virtue was held in the highest esteem?—4. Besides Osiris and Isis, what did the Egyptians worship? What does Diodorus relate? What doctrine did they hold?—5. When a member of a family died, what did the relations do? Describe the ceremony of embalming.—6. What is said of the power of the laws?

of each person, after death, was strictly examined. If found to be virtuous, his body was embalmed with every mark of respect, and deposited in a sepulchre; but if his life had been vicious, or if he had died in debt, he was left unburied, and was supposed to be deprived of future happiness. The kings themselves were not exempt from this trial after death; and if their lives were vicious, they were deprived of funeral rites and the honor of the sepulchre.

CHAPTER VI

THE PYRAMIDS, LABYRINTH, LAKE OF MŒRIS, ETC.

THE Pyramids of Egypt are the most celebrated of those works of grandeur for which that country has been renowned. Of these Pyramids there were three near the city of Memphis, more famous than the rest; one of these was justly ranked among the seven wonders of the world. It is a gigantic structure. The base covers a surface of about eleven acres. The sides of the base correspond in direction with the four cardinal points, and each measures seven hundred and sixty-four feet at the foundation. The perpendicular height is about four hundred and eighty feet. A hundred thousand men are said to have been employed for the space of twenty years in erecting this vast edifice. The Pyramids were designed as tombs for the kings, and there is still to be seen, in the middle of the largest, an empty sepulchre, about three feet wide and six feet long, cut out of one entire stone.

2. The Labyrinth of Egypt was an enormous structure of marble; it was built one-half above and the other half under ground; it comprised twelve palaces, with communications leading to one another, and was divided into 3,000 rooms or apartments, fifteen hundred above the surface and precisely the same number, identically arranged, below it. This structure was designed as a burrying-place for kings, and also for the sacred crocodiles. The Obelisks, with which Egypt abounded, were quadrangular spires, terminat-

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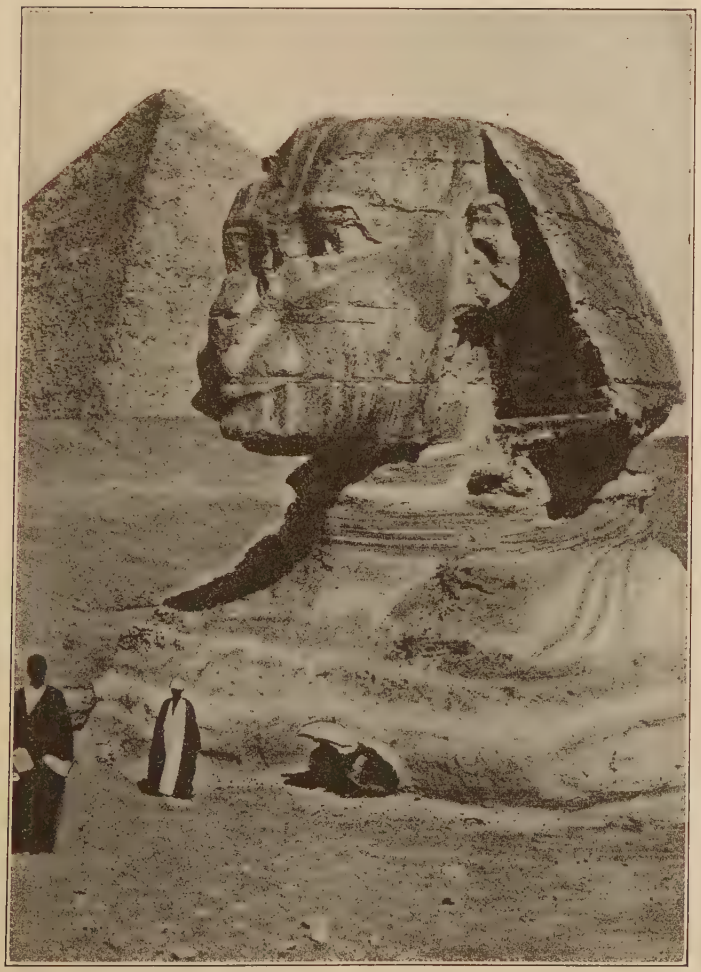
If a man had lived vicious, or died in debt, what was done?

CHAPTER VI.—1. What is said of the Pyramids? What was the length of each side of the base of the Pyramid near Memphis? For what were they designed?—2. What was the Labyrinth? For what designed? What is said of the Obelisks?



PYRAMID AND SPHINX.

ing in a point, often wonderful on account of their height and beauty. Sesostris erected two near the city of Heliop'olis, each one hundred and eighty feet in height. Several of these obelisks, with immense labor, were transported to Rome; besides, there is one in Paris, and one in Central Park, New York. Many of them were covered with hieroglyphics, that is, mystical characters used by the Egyptians before the invention of letters, and afterwards to conceal the mysteries of their theology.

3. The noblest and the most wonderful of all the constructions of the kings of Egypt, was the lake of Mœ'ris, which Herodotus considers as even superior to the Pyramids. This lake was in circumference about one hundred and eighty French leagues, and three hundred feet deep. Two pyramids, on each of which was placed a colossal statue, seated upon a throne, raised their heads to the height of three hundred feet, in the midst of the lake, above all the surface of the water. It is generally believed that this immense reservoir, with its pyramids, was completed in the reign of one monarch, from whom it takes its name, and was designed to regulate the inundations of the Nile.

When that river rose too high, and fatal consequences seemed likely to follow, the water was let into the lake, and covered the soil no longer than was necessary to enrich it. On the contrary, when the inundation was too low, and threatened a famine, a sufficient quantity of water was let out of the lake upon the land.

4. The ruins of a few of the ancient cities and palaces of Egypt still excite the wonder and admiration of the traveller. The glory of Thebes, the capital of upper Egypt, famous for its hundred gates, was the theme of admiration of poets and historians at a period prior to the commencement of authentic history. Strabo and Diodorus describe it under the name of Diosp'olis, and give such magnificent descriptions of its monuments as to cause their fidelity to be called in question, until the observations of modern travellers have proved their accounts to have fallen short of the reality. The ruins of one of the palaces of this city are especially admired, and seem to have remained only to eclipse the

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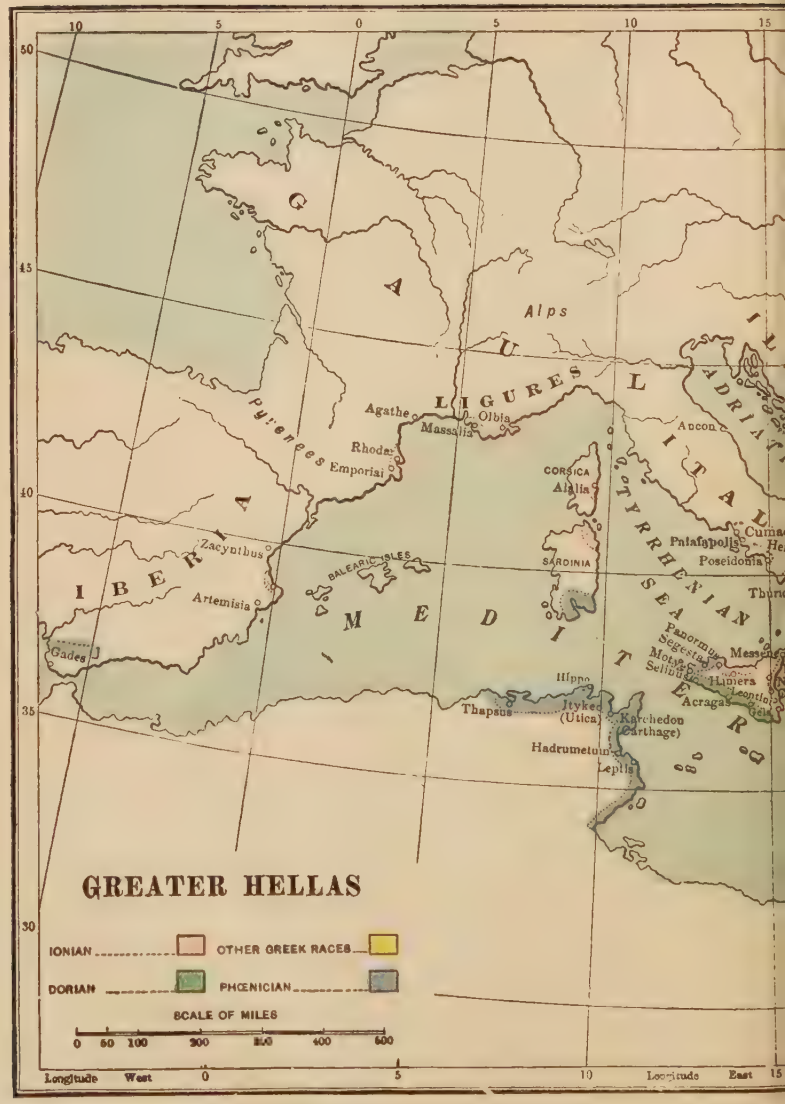
With what were many of them covered?—3. What was the noblest work? What was its circumference? What was in the midst of the lake? For what was it designed?—4. What is said of the ruins of cities, etc.? Describe Thebes. Describe one of the palaces of this city?

glory of the most pompous edifices of modern times. There were four avenues of great extent which led to four porticoes of amazing height; they were bounded on each side with statues, composed of materials as rare and extraordinary as their size was remarkable. Within the middle of this majestic palace there was a hall, supported by one hundred and twenty pillars, thirty-six feet in circumference and of proportionate height, which the lapse of so many ages has not been able to demolish. Before the time of Herodotus, Memphis had supplanted Thebes, which seems to have been particularly noted for its stately temples, and among them that of the god Apis was the most remarkable.*

* For a fuller account of Persia, Phœnicia, and Egypt, see Fredet's *Ancient History.*

What is said of Memphis?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LIGURES
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Rhodes
Emporiai
Ancon
CORSICA
Alalia
Pnitagopolis
Poseidonia
Zacynthus
BALEARIC ISLES
SARDINIA
Artemisia
Gades
Panormus
Segesta
Motya
Selinus
Himera
Acragas
Hippo
Thapsus
Utyke
(Utica)
Karchedon
(Carthage)
Hadrumetum
Leptis
GREATER HELLAS
IONIAN
OTHER GREEK RACES
DORIAN
PHOENICIAN
SCALE OF MILES
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Tanais
Lake Maiotis
Olbia
Panagoria
Taurica Chersonesus
Heraclea Chersonesus
Caucasus Mts.
Pityeus
Dioscurias
COLCHIS
BLACK SEA
Phasis
Kallatis
Odessus
Mesambria
Apollonia
Sinope
Kerasous
Trapezus
PAPHLAGONIA
Kotyora
Heraclea
CAPPADOCIA
Epidaurus
Lissos
Epidamnus
Dyrrachium
Apollonia
MACEDONIA
Olynthus
Potidæa
Thessaly
Dodona
CORCYRA
Ambracia
Anactorium
Etolia
LEUCAS
Delphi
ITHACA
Thebes
Corinth
Argos
Sparta
MELOS
THERA
CRETE
Cydonia
Cnossus
Abydus
Ilios
Cyzicus
Clios
BITHYNIA
Halys
Mysia
Lydia
Sardis
PHRYGIA
Smyrna
Ephesus
Miletus
Caria
Lycia
Pamphylia
Selinus
CILICIA
Solos
Salamis
Arados
CYPRUS
Sidon
Tyre
PHŒNICIA
SYRIA
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Nile
Red Sea
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BOOK III

GREECE

CHAPTER I

GLANCES AT EARLY GREEK HISTORY.

AMONG the various nations of antiquity, Greece deservedly holds the most distinguished rank for the patriotism, genius, and learning of its inhabitants as well as the high state of perfection to which they carried the arts and sciences.

It formerly comprised various small independent states, differing from one another in forms of government and in the character of the people, but still united in a confederacy for mutual defence, by the counsel of Amphic'tyons, and by their common language, religion, and public games.

2. The name Greece was never used by the ancient inhabitants of that country. They called their land Hel'las, and themselves Hel'lenes. It is from the Romans that we have derived the word Greece; but why they gave it a different name from that used by the natives cannot be determined. The original inhabitants, who were generally considered as the descendants of Ja'van, the son of Japhet, lived in the lowest condition of barbarism, dwelling in huts, feeding on acorns and berries, and clothing themselves in the skins of wild beasts, when Ce'crops with a colony from Egypt, and Cadmus with a body of Phœni'cians, landed in Greece, and planted on its shores the first rudiments of civilization. Archæology, indeed, shows signs of culture before the coming of Cadmus.

The usual form of government in Greece was a limited monarchy; this was finally abolished, and a republican form generally adopted.

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of Greece? What did it formerly comprise? How were they united?—2. What was its ancient name? From whom were the inhabitants descended? What was their condition when Cecrops landed in Greece?

3. The history of this famous land may be divided into two parts: 1st, the period of uncertain history, which extends from the earliest accounts of the country to the first Persian war, in the year 490 B. C.; 2d, the period of authentic history, extending from the Persian invasion to the final subjugation of Greece by the Romans, B. C. 146. The first period is generally reckoned from the foundation of Sic'yon, the most ancient kingdom of Greece, and comprises a space of about sixteen hundred years. This long succession of ages, though greatly involved in obscurity and fable, is still interspersed with several interesting particulars. It contains no records that properly deserve the name of history.

4. Grecian history, however, derives some authenticity at this period from the Chronicle of Paros, preserved among the Arundelian marbles of Oxford. The authority of this Chronicle has, indeed, been much questioned; but still, by many, it is thought to be worthy of considerable credit. It fixes the dates of the most important events in the history of Greece, from the time of Cecrops down to the age of Alexander the Great.

5. Sic'yon, the capital of the ancient kingdom of that name, was founded by Ægi'alus; Argos by In'achus, the last of the Ti'tans; Athens, which afterwards bore so distinguished a part in the history of Greece, was founded by Cecrops, with a colony from Egypt. He was an eminent legislator, and instituted the court of Areop'agus. Thebes was founded by Cadmus, who is said to have introduced letters into Greece from Phœnicia; this alphabet, however, consisted of only sixteen letters, and the mode of writing was alternately from right to left, and from left to right.

6. In the time of Cranaus, who succeeded Cecrops, happened the deluge of Deuca'lion, which, though much magnified by the poets, was probably only a partial inundation.

The other memorable institutions that distinguish this period were the Eleusin'ian mysteries, the Olymp'ic and other games,—of which we shall speak hereafter,—and the marvellous exploits of Her'cules and The'seus.

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3. How is the history of Greece divided? How do these periods extend? What is said of the first period?—4. From what does the Grecian history derive authenticity? Of what does this chronicle fix the date?—5. By whom was Sicyon founded? Argos? Athens? Thebes? What is said of Cadmus?—6. In the time of Cranaus, what happened? What institutions distinguished this period?

CHAPTER II

THE FABULOUS AND HEROIC AGES.

THE fabulous age comprises the period from the foundation of the principal cities to the commencement of civilization, and the introduction of letters and arts into Greece. The first great enterprise undertaken by the Greeks was the Argonaut'ic expedition, which in its details appears to partake more of fable than of history. It was commanded by Ja'son, the son of the king of Iol'chos, who was accompanied by many of the most illustrious men of Greece, among whom were Her'cules, The'seus, Cas'tor and Pol'lux, Or'pheus, Æsculap'ius the physician, and Chi'ron the astronomer.

2. They sailed from Iolchos, in Thes'saly, to Col'chis, on the eastern coast of the Eux'ine Sea; they received the name Argonauts from the ship Ar'go, in which they sailed; it was said to have been the first sea vessel ever built. This famous voyage, which was probably a military and mercantile adventure, is commonly represented to have been undertaken for the purpose of recovering the golden fleece of a ram, which originally belonged to their country. The fleece is pretended to have been guarded by bulls that breathed fire, and by a dragon that never slept.

3. The Heroic Age was particularly distinguished by the Tro'jan war, the history of which rests on the authority of Homer, and forms the subject of his Il'iad,* the noblest poem of antiquity. According to the poet, Hel'en, the daughter of Tyn'darus, king of Sparta, was reputed the most beautiful woman of her age, and her hand was solicited by the most illustrious princes of Greece. Her father bound all her suitors by a solemn oath, that they would abide by the choice that Helen should make of one among them; and that, should she be taken from the arms of her husband, they would assist, to the utmost of their power, to recover her.

* From Illium, or Troy.

CHAPTER II.—1. What do the fabulous ages comprise? What was the first great enterprise? Who commanded it? and who accompanied him?—2. From where did they sail? For what was this famous voyage undertaken?—3. For what is the Heroic Age distinguished? What is said of Helen? How did her father bind all her suitors?

4. Helen gave her hand to Menela'us, and after her nuptials, Tyndarus, her father, resigned the crown to his son-in-law. Paris, the son of Pri'am, king of Troy, a powerful city founded by Dar'danus, having adjudged the prize of superior beauty to Venus, in preference to Juno and Minerva, was promised by her the most beautiful woman of the age for his wife. Shortly after this event, Paris visited Sparta, where he was kindly received by Menelaus; but in return for the hospitality tendered to him he persuaded Helen to elope with him to Troy, and carried off with her a considerable amount of treasure.

5. This act of treachery and ingratitude produced the Trojan war. A confederacy was immediately formed by the princes of Greece, in accordance with their engagement, to avenge the outrage. An army of one hundred thousand men was conveyed in a fleet of twelve hundred vessels to the Trojan coast. Agamem'non, king of Argos, brother of Menelaus, was selected as commander-in-chief. Some of the other princes most distinguished in this war, were Achilles, the bravest of the Greeks; also Ajax, Menelaus, Ulys'ses, Nes'tor, and Diome'des.

6. The Trojans were commanded by Hec'tor, the son of Priam, assisted by Paris, Deiph'obus, Æn'eas, and Sarpe'don. After a siege of ten years, the city was taken by stratagem, plundered of its wealth, and burnt to the ground.* The venerable Priam, king of Troy, was slain, and all his family carried into captivity. About eighty years after the destruction of Troy, the civil war of the Heracli'dæ began; it is usually called the return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponne'sus. Hercules, king of Myce'næ, a city of Peloponnesus, was banished from his country, with all his family, while the crown was seized by Atre'us, the son of Pe'lops. After the lapse of about a century, the descendants of Hercules returned to Peloponnesus, and having expelled the inhabitants, again took possession of the country.

* Much light has been thrown on the ruins of Troy by the recent researches of Dr. Schliemann.

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4. To whom did Helen give her hand? What is said of Paris?—5. What did this treachery produce? Who was commander-in-chief of the Grecian forces? Mention the other princes.—6. By whom were the Trojans commanded? What is said of the city? Of Priam? What happened about eighty years after this? What is said of Hercules?

MACEDON
Heraclea
CORCYRA
Corcyra
EPIRUS
THESSALY
Thebes
IONIAN SEA
ACARNANIA
IONIA
ÆTOLIA
Thermopylæ
LOCRIS
EUBŒA
PHOCIS
W. LOCRIS
Carmel
BŒOTIA
ISLANDS
GULF OF CORINTH
ACHAIA
ATTICA
Marathon
Corinth
Athens
ELIS
ARCADIA
ARGOLIS
SARONIC GULF
MESSENIA
Sparta
LACONIA
PELOPONNESSUS
GREECE
B.C. 658
CHAPTERS III + IV
ÆGEAN SEA
Hellespont
Troy
MT. IDA
IONIA
SAMOS
PATMOS
PAROS
Scale of Miles

CHAPTER III

THE REPUBLIC OF SPARTA.

SPAR'TA, or Lacedæ'mon was the capital of Laco'nia, in the southern part of Peloponne'sus. After the return of the Heraclidæ, the government was administered by the two sons of Aristode'mus, who reigned jointly; and this double monarchy was transmitted to the descendants of each for a period of eight hundred and eighty years.

2. This radical principle of disunion, and consequently of anarchy, made the lack of a regular system of laws severely felt. Lycur'gus, the brother of one of the kings of Sparta, a man distinguished alike for his great ability and stern integrity, was invested, by the united voice of the sovereigns and the people, with the important duty of framing a new constitution for his country. The arduous task being at length completed, produced not only an entire change in the form of government, but also in the manners of the people. He instituted an elective senate, consisting of twenty-eight members, whose office was to preserve a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. Nothing could come before the assembly of the people which had not received the previous consent of the senate; and, on the other hand, no action of the senate was effectual without the sanction of the people. The kings were continued, but were nothing more than hereditary presidents of the senate and generals of the army.

3. Lycurgus divided the territory of the republic into thirty-nine thousand equal portions among the free citizens. For the purpose of banishing luxury, commerce was abolished. Gold and silver coin was prohibited, and iron money was substituted as a medium of exchange. A uniformity of dress was established, and all the citizens, not excepting the kings, were required to take their principal meals at the public tables, from which all luxury and excess were excluded, and where a kind of black broth was the chief article of food. Among some of the admirable ceremonies which prevailed at these public meals, the following is interesting and instruc-

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CHAPTER III.—1. What was Sparta? What is said of the government after the return of the Heraclidæ?—2. What is said of Lycurgus? With what was he invested? What did he institute? What is said of the kings?—3. How did Lycurgus divide the territory? What is said of commerce? Of gold and silver? Of iron money? Of dress? Of public tables?

tive. When the assembly was seated, the oldest man present, pointing to the door, said, "No word spoken here goes out there." This wise regulation produced mutual confidence, and rendered the people unrestrained in conversation.

4. The institutions of Lycurgus, though in many respects admirable, had still a number of grave defects. Infants, shortly after birth, underwent an examination, and those that were well formed were delivered to public nurses; but all who were deformed or sickly were inhumanly exposed to perish. At the age of seven, children were sent to the public schools. The young were taught to pay the greatest respect to the aged and to cherish an ardent love for their country. The profession of arms was looked upon as the great business of life. Letters were taught only in so far as they were useful; hence the Spartans, while they were distinguished for many heroic virtues, were never eminent for learning. No production from the pen of a native of Sparta has come down to modern times. These hardy people were accustomed to express themselves in short, pithy sentences, so that even at the present time this style of speaking is called after them laconic—Laconia being one of the names of their country.

5. The youth were early inured to hardship; and were accustomed to sleep on rushes, trained to the athletic exercises, and supplied with only plain and scanty food. They were even taught to steal whatever they could, provided they could accomplish the theft without being detected. Plutarch relates the fact of a boy who had stolen a fox and concealed it under his garments, and who actually suffered the animal to tear out his bowels, rather than confess the theft. The women of Lacedæmon were destitute of those milder virtues that most adorn the female character, and their manners were highly indelicate. Their education was intended to give them a masculine energy, and to fill them with admiration of military glory. Mothers rather rejoiced than wept when their sons fell nobly in battle. "Return with your shield or on your shield," was the injunction of a Spartan mother to her son, when he was going to meet the enemy. She meant that he should conquer or die.

6. It is not surprising that men thus trained should prove

What was said by the oldest man present?—4. What is said of the institutions of Lycurgus? How were infants treated? What were the young taught to pay? What is said of letters? How were they accustomed to speak?—5. What is said of the youth? Of the manners of the women? What is said of mothers?

SPARTA VIEWED FROM THERAPNE.

strong and courageous in battle or that a race engaged in endless wars should have acquired the highest military renown. Though of absorbing interest the Spartan conquest of the Peloponnesus cannot be included in the space allotted to this brief summary.

7. For five hundred years the institutions of Lycurgus continued in force. During this period the influence of Sparta was felt throughout Greece; her government acquired solidity, while the other states were torn by domestic dissensions. In the process of time, however, the severe manners and rigid virtues of her citizens began to relax; changes in her laws and institutions were finally introduced, particularly during the reign of Lysander, whose conquests filled the country with wealth.

From this period luxury and avarice began to prevail, until Sparta, with the other states of Greece, sank under the dominion of Philip, king of Macedon.

CHAPTER IV

THE REPUBLIC OF ATHENS.

ATH'ENS, the capital of At'tica, was distinguished for its commerce, wealth, and magnificence, and as the seat of learning and the arts. The last king of Athens was Co'drus, who sacrified himself, for the good of his country, in a war with the Heraclidæ. After his death, no one being deemed worthy to succeed him, the regal government was abolished, and the state was governed by magistrates, styled archons. At first the office was for life, but it was afterwards reduced to a period of ten years; and finally the archons, nine in number, were elected annually, and were possessed of equal authority.

2. As these changes produced convulsions in the State, and rendered the condition of the people miserable, the Athenians appointed Dra'co, a man of stern and rigid principles, to prepare a code of written laws. His laws were characterized by extreme severity. Every crime was pun-

7. How long did the institutions of Lycurgus continue? In the process of time, what took place? What is said of Sparta from this period?

CHAPTER IV.—1. For what was Athens distinguished? After the death of Codrus, how was the state governed? What is said of the office of archon?—2. What is said of Draco? How were his laws distinguished?

ished with death. Draco being asked why he was so severe in his punishment, replied that the smallest offence deserved death, and that he had no higher penalty for the greatest crime. The severity of these laws prevented them from being fully executed, and at length caused them to be entirely abolished, after a period of one hundred and fifty years.

3. So'lon, one of the seven wise men of Greece, being raised to the archonship, was intrusted with the task of framing a new system of laws for his country. His disposition was mild and condescending; and, without attempting to change the manners of his countrymen, he endeavored to accommodate his system to their prevailing customs, to moderate their dissensions, to restrain their passions, and to open a field for the growth of virtue. Of his laws he said, "If they are not the best possible, they are the best the Athenians are capable of receiving."

4. Solon's system divided the people into four classes, according to their wealth. To the first three, composed of the richest citizens, he intrusted all the offices of the commonwealth. The fourth class, which was more numerous than the other three, had an equal right of suffrage in the public assembly, where all laws were framed and measures of state decreed. By this regulation the balance of power was thrown in favor of the people. He instituted a senate composed of four hundred, and afterwards increased it to five hundred persons. He restored the court of the Areop'agus, which had greatly fallen into disrepute, and committed to it the supreme administration of justice. Commerce and agriculture were encouraged; industry and economy were enforced; the father who had taught his son no trade could not claim a support from him in his old age.

5. The manners of the Athe'nians formed a striking contrast with those of the Lacedæmonians. At Athens the arts were highly esteemed; at Sparta they were despised and neglected. At Athens peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyments of life the aim of its citizens; Sparta was entirely a military establishment; her people made war the great business of life. Luxury characterized the

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What reply did he make when asked why he was so severe?—3. What is said of Solon? What did he endeavor to accomplish? Of his laws, what did he say?—4. What is said of Solon's system? Of the fourth class? What did he institute? What is said of commerce, etc.?—5. What was the striking contrast between the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians?

ATHENS FROM THE EAST.

MACEDON
THRACE
Amphipolis
Ægos Potamos
Sestos
IMBROS
LEMNOS
CORCYRA
Corcyra
THESSALY
Thebes
ÆGEAN
SCYROS
SEA
Thermopylae
IONIAN
Coronea
Leuctra
Platæa
ATTICA
ISLANDS
Corinth
Athens
IONIA
Mycale
Ephesus
PELOPONNESUS
Mantinea
Argos
SAMOS
Sparta
Lacedæmon
PATMOS
GREECE
B.C. 490 TO 360.
PAROS
CHAPTERS V & VI.
Scale of Miles

Athenian, frugality the Spartan. They were both, however, equally jealous of their liberty and equally brave in war.

6. Before the death of Solon, Pisistra'tus, a man of great wealth and eloquence, by courting the popular favor, raised himself to the sovereign power, which he and his sons retained for fifty years.

He governed with great ability, encouraged the arts and sciences, and is said to have founded the first public library known in the world, and first collected the poems of Homer into one volume, which, before that time, were repeated in detached portions. The legend that he caused literary men to edit the text of Homer is not universally accepted, however.

Pisistratus transmitted his power to his sons, Hip'pias and Hippar'chus. They governed for some time with wisdom and moderation, but having, at length, abused their power, a conspiracy was formed against them, and their government was overthrown by Harmo'dius and Aristogi'ton. Hipparchus was slain. Hippias fled to Darius, king of Persia, who was then meditating the invasion of Greece. He was subsequently killed in the battle of Mar'athon, fighting against his countrymen.

CHAPTER V

FROM THE INVASION OF GREECE BY THE PERSIANS TO THE PELOPONNE'SIAN WAR.—B. C. 490 TO 431.

THE period from the first invasion to the beginning of the Peloponnesian war is esteemed the most glorious in the history of Greece. The series of victories obtained by the inhabitants over the Persians are among the most splendid recorded in the annals of the world. The immediate cause which led to the invasion of Greece seems to have been to avenge the aid which the Athenians gave to the people of Io'nia, who had attempted to throw off the yoke of Persia.

2. Darius, king of Persia, having reduced the Ionians, next turned his arms against the Greeks, their allies, with the design of making entire conquest of Greece. He despatched heralds to each of the Grecian states, demanding earth and

6. What is said of Pisistratus? How did he govern? What is said of Hipparchus and Hippias?

CHAPTER V.—1. What is said of this period? What was the immediate cause which led to the invasion of Greece?—2. What is said of Darius?

water, which was an acknowledgment of his supremacy. Thebes and several of the other cities submitted to the demand; but Athens and Sparta indignantly refused, and, seizing the heralds, they cast one into a pit and another into a well, and told them to take there their earth and water.

3. Darius now commenced a formidable attack both by sea and land. The first Persian fleet, under the command of Mardo'nius, was wrecked in doubling the promontory of Athos, with a loss of no less than three hundred vessels; a second, of six hundred sail, ravaged the Grecian islands; while an immense army, consisting of one hundred and ten thousand men, poured down impetuously on Attica. This formidable host was met by the Athenian army under the command of Milti'ades, on the plains of Mar'athon, where the Persians were signally defeated and fled with precipitation to their ships. The loss of the invaders amounted to six thousand three hundred; while the Athenian army, which did not exceed ten thousand men, lost only one hundred and ninety-two. A soldier covered with wounds ran to Athens with the news, and having strength only sufficient to say, "Rejoice! the victory is ours," fell down and expired.

4. Miltiades, the illustrious general by whose valor this great victory was gained, received the most inhuman treatment from his ungrateful countrymen. Being accused of treason for an unsuccessful attack on the isle of Paros, he was condemned to death; this punishment, however, was commuted into a fine of fifty talents.* In consequence of his inability to pay this amount he was cast into prison, where in a few days he died of wounds he received in the imprudent and unnecessary attack on Paros.

5. At this time the Athenians were divided into two parties, under their respective leaders—Aristi'des, the advocate of aristocracy, and Themis'tocles, of democracy. Aristides, who on account of his integrity was called the Just, through the intrigues of his great rival was banished for ten years by the Ostracism. It happened, while the people were giving their votes for his exile, that a certain citizen, who was unable to write, and who did not know him personally, brought

* About $50,000.

How did Athens and Sparta treat the heralds?—3. What is said of the first Persian fleet? What was the number of the second fleet? By whom was this host met? What was the loss of the Persians? Of the Athenian army? What is said of an Athenian soldier?—4. What is related of Miltiades, the illustrious general?

a shell and asked him to write the name of Aristides upon it. "Why, what harm has Aristides ever done you?" said he. "No harm at all," replied the citizen, "but I cannot bear to hear him continually called the just." Aristides smiled, and taking the shell wrote his own name upon it, and went into banishment.

6. On the death of Darius, his son Xerx'es, who succeeded to the Persian throne, resolved to prosecute the war which his father had undertaken against Greece. Having spent four years in making the necessary preparations, he collected an army, according to Herodotus, numbering over two millions of fighting men; and including the women and retinue of attendants, the whole multitude is said to have exceeded five millions of persons. His fleet consisted of more than twelve hundred galleys of war, besides three thousand transports of various kinds.

7. Having arrived at Mount Athos, he caused a canal, navigable for his largest vessels, to be cut through the isthmus which joins that mountain to the continent, and for the conveyance of his army he ordered two bridges of boats to be extended across the Hel'lespont, at a point where it measures seven furlongs in breadth. The first of these bridges was destroyed by a tempest, on which account Xerxes, in transports of rage, ordered the sea to be scourged with three hundred stripes, and to be chained by casting into it a pair of fetters. The bridge being again repaired, the army commenced its march, and occupied seven days and seven nights in passing the straits, while those appointed to conduct the march lashed the soldiers with whips, in order to quicken their speed.

8. Xerxes having taken a position on an eminence, from which he could view the vast assemblage he had collected, the plain covered with his troops, and the sea overspread with his vessels, at first called himself the most favored of mortals. But when he reflected that in the short space of a hundred years, not one of the many thousand then before him would be alive, he burst into tears, at the instability of all human things!

9. Most of the smaller cities of Greece submitted at the demand of the Persian monarch; of those which united to oppose him, Athens and Sparta took the lead. The Persian army advanced directly towards Athens, bearing down all

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6. What is said of Xerxes? What was the number of his army? Of his fleet?—7. Having arrived at Mount Athos, what did he cause? —7. What did he order? How long was the army in passing the straits?—8. What is now related of Xerxes?—9. What is said of the Persian army?

before it until it came to the pass of Thermop'ylæ, on the east of Thes'saly. On this spot Leon'idas, one of the kings of Sparta, with only six thousand men, had taken his position in order to oppose its progress. Xerxes having arrived at this place, sent a herald to Leonidas, commanding him to deliver up his arms, to whom the noble Spartan replied with laconic brevity, "Come and take them." For two days the Persians endeavored to force their passage through the defile and were repulsed with great slaughter; but having at length discovered a secret path leading to an eminence which overlooked the Grecian camp, and having gained this advantageous post, under the cover of the night, the defence of the pass became impossible.

10. Foreseeing certain destruction, Leonidas dismissed all his allies, retaining only three hundred of his countrymen, and, in obedience to a law of Sparta, which forbade her soldiers, under any circumstances, to flee from an enemy, resolved to devote his life for the good of his country. Animated by his example, the three hundred Spartans under his command determined to abide the issue of the conflict. Leonidas fell among the first, bravely contending against the thousands of his enemies; of the three hundred heroes, only one escaped to bear to Sparta the news that her patriotic sons had died in her defence; and this survivor, after his return, felt himself so disgraced at being alive, that he perished by his own hand. Aristode'mus, another of the band, being absent when the battle occurred, was considered so much disgraced by this accident that, when he afterwards distinguished himself at the battle of Platæ'a, he was nevertheless deemed unworthy of any share of the spoils. A monument was afterwards erected on the spot, to commemorate this memorable battle, bearing this inscription, written by Simonides:

> "Go, stranger, and to listening Spartans tell,
> That here, obedient to their laws, we fell."

11. Having forced the pass of Thermopylæ, Xerxes directed his march towards Athens. As he advanced he wasted the country with fire and sword. The Athenians, having conveyed their women and children, for safety, to the islands, retired to their fleet, leaving their city in the hands of the

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On this spot who opposed its progress? What reply did he make? How long were the Persians stopped?—10. What did Leonidas now do? Of the three hundred how many escaped? What inscription was afterwards placed upon the monument?—11. Where did Xerxes now march? What is said of the Athenians?

Persians, by whom it was pillaged and burnt. The only resource left to the Greeks was their damaged fleet; therefore they immediately commenced preparations for a naval engagement. Their fleet consisted of only three hundred and eighty sail, under the command of Themistocles and Aristides, while that of the Persians amounted to twelve hundred vessels. The engagement took place in the straits of Sal'amis, and resulted in the total defeat of the Persian armament. Xerxes, who had seated himself upon an eminence, that he might behold the engagement, having seen the complete discomfiture of his squadron, fled with precipitation to the shores of the Hellespont. But, to his great mortification, he found that the bridge of boats which he left had been destroyed by a tempest; terrified, however, at the valor displayed by the Greeks, his impatience would admit of no delay; he therefore in a fishing-boat crossed the Hellespont to his own dominions.

12. The Persian monarch left Mardonius, with three hundred thousand men, to complete the conquest of Greece. This army, early in the following season, was met at Platæa by the combined forces of Athens and Sparta, consisting of one hundred and ten thousand men, under the command of Aristides and Pausanias, and was defeated with tremendous slaughter, Mardonius himself being numbered among the slain. On the same day the Greeks engaged and destroyed the remains of the Persian fleet, at the promontory of Myc'ale, near Eph'esus. The Persian army was now completely destroyed, and Xerxes, having been frustrated in all his ambitious views, was soon afterwards assassinated. He was succeeded on the Persian throne by his son, Artaxerx'es Longim'anus, B. C. 464.

13. At this period, the national character of the Greeks was at its highest elevation. The common danger had annihilated all petty jealousies among the states, and had given them union as a nation. Encouraged by their late victories, they resolved to bid defiance to the Persians; and undertook to aid the Ionians, who had thrown off the yoke of Persia. The combined forces of Sparta and Athens, under the command of Pausan'ias and Ci'mon, expelled the Persians from

Who commanded their fleet? What engagement took place? What is said of Xerxes? How did he cross the Hellespont?—12. What did the Persian monarch leave? By whom was this army met? and what was the issue of the battle? On the same day what took place? What was the end of Xerxes?—13. At this period what is said of the Greeks? What did they undertake? What did they effect?

Thrace, destroyed their fleet on the coast of Pamphy'lia, took the island of Cyprus, and having reduced and plundered the city of Byzan'tium, they returned with immense booty.

14. Pausanias, who had borne so distinguished a part in the late war, now became intoxicated with glory and power, and aspired to the sovereign dominion of Greece. For this purpose he wrote to Xerxes, offering to effect the subjugation of his country, and to hold it under the dominion of Persia, on the condition of receiving his daughter in marriage. The treachery was detected before it could be carried into execution, and Pausanias, being condemned by the Eph'ori, took refuge in the temple of Miner'va, where the sanctity of the place secured him from violence. Being unable to escape from this asylum, he soon perished by hunger. Themistocles, the great Athenian commander, being accused of participating in the treason of Pausanias, was banished from his country by the law of Ostracism. The exiled general proceeded to Asia, wrote a letter to the Persian monarch, in which he said, "I, Themistocles, come to thee, who have done thy house most ill of all the Greeks, while I was of necessity repelling the invasion of thy father, but yet more good, when I was in safety, and his return was endangered." He was permitted to live in Persia in great splendor, but being required by Artaxerxes to take up arms against the Greeks, rather than sully his former glory, by engaging in a war against his native country, although that country had been ungrateful towards him, he chose to suffer a voluntary death. Another account says that he died a pensioner of Artaxerxes.

15. Aristides, after the banishment of Themistocles, directed the affairs of Athens, and upon his death, which happened shortly afterwards, Ci'mon, the son of Miltiades, one of the most illustrious statesmen and warriors of Greece, became the most prominent man in the republic. He gained two important victories over the Persians on the same day, the one on sea and the other on land, near the river Eury'medon, in Asia Minor. But it was the characteristic of the Athenians to treat their most distinguished citizens with ingratitude. Cimon, through the influence of faction, was banished by the Ostracism, while Peri'cles, a young man of exalted talents and extraordinary eloquence, succeeded in gaining the ascendency at Athens.

14. What is said of Pausanias? Where did he take refuge? What is related of Themistocles? What was his end?—15. What is said of Aristides and Cimon? After the banishment of Cimon who gained the ascendency at Athens?

16. Cimon, however, after a banishment of five years, was recalled, and, being restored to the command of the army, gained several other important victories over the Persians, and finally died of a wound he received at the siege of Cic′-tium, in Cyprus. Shortly after this event the Persian war, which had lasted, with some slight intermission, for about fifty years, was brought to a termination. Artaxerxes, weary of a war that only brought disgrace upon his arms and weakened his resources, sued for peace, which was granted on condition that he should give freedom to all the Grecian cities in Asia, and that no Persian ship of war should enter the Grecian seas.

17. After the death of Cimon, Pericles rose to the summit of power. He governed Athens with almost arbitrary sway for nearly forty years. He adorned the city with master-pieces of architecture, sculpture, and painting, patronized the arts and sciences, and celebrated splendid games and festivals. His administration forms an era of splendor and magnificence in the history of Greece. In all his public acts he displayed the greatest moderation and prudence, and the end of all his projects seems to have been the glory of this country and the happiness of his fellow-citizens. He died of a plague which raged at Athens. A little before his death, hearing some of his friends speaking of his achievements, he said, "You have forgotten the most glorious action of my life, which is, that I never caused a single citizen to put on mourning."

CHAPTER VI

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR TO THE REIGN OF PHILIP OF MAC′EDON.—B. C. 431 TO 360.

A FEW years before the death of Pericles, the Peloponnesian war began. This long and desperate struggle grew out of the ceaseless rivalry between Athens and Sparta; and for twenty-seven years, with little intermission, it inflicted the deepest calamities upon the Grecian states.

The origin of this war seems to have been as follows: The

16. Was Cimon again recalled? What is said of the Persian war? What were the conditions of peace? 17. What is said of Pericles? In all his public acts what did he display? How did he die? What did he say before his death?

CHAPTER VI.—1. What was commenced previous to the death of Pericles? What was the origin of this war?

inhabitants of Corcy'ra, while engaged in a contest with the Corin'thians, applied for aid to the Athenians, who readily granted them assistance; this conduct on the part of the latter was deemed a violation of the treaty of the confederate states of Peloponnesus, and war was immediately declared against Athens.

2. Sparta, joined by all the Peloponne'sian states, except Ar'gos, which remained neutral, took the lead against the Athenians, who had but few allies. The Peloponnesian forces, under the command of Archida'mus, the king of Sparta, amounted to sixty thousand, while the Athenian army did not exceed thirty-two thousand, but the fleet of the latter was much the superior. During the first year of the war the confederate forces entered Attica, laid waste the country, and besieged Athens; in the second year, the city was visited by a dreadful plague, which carried off several thousands, and among its victims was the renowned Pericles. The pestilence, however, did not arrest the progress of the war, which continued to rage with unabated fury.

3. After the death of Pericles, Cle'on grew into power, and for a short time directed the Athenian counsels; but he was slain at Amphip'olis, in a battle with Bras'idas, the Spartan general, who was also mortally wounded in the same engagement. After this event, a treaty of peace was concluded between Athens and Sparta, through the influence of Nic'ias, who now became the popular leader at Athens. Peace, however, was of short duration, war being again declared, through the influence of Alcibi'ades, who though one of the greatest of the Athenian generals, and the most accomplished orator of his time, was somewhat unscrupulous.

4. An expedition was next sent against the island of Sicily, under the command of Alcibiades and Nicias, but the former, being accused of sacrilege, was recalled, and the latter was defeated and slain. Alcibiades, after service with Sparta, was again placed at the head of the Athenian army, and gained several important victories, but falling a second time into disrepute, he was banished from his country, and took refuge in Asia, where he was assassinated.

5. Lysan'der, the Lacedæmonian general, having defeated

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2. What state took the lead against Athens? During the first year of the war what took place? During the second?—3. After the death of Pericles, who grew into power? What was his end? After this event what took place?—4. What expedition was next undertaken? What is said of Alcibiades?—5. What is said of Lysander?

the Athenian fleet, at Ægospotami, on the Hellespont, reduced Athens to the last extremity, by blockading the city by sea and land. The wretched Athenians were at length compelled to accept the most humiliating terms of peace; they agreed to demolish their port, to limit their fleet to twelve ships, and for the future to undertake no military enterprise but under the command of the Lacedæmonians. Thus ended the Peloponnesian war, by the submission of Athens and the triumph of Sparta, which now became the leading power in Greece, B. C. 403.

6. Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government of that state, and established in its place an oligarchy, consisting of thirty magistrates, with absolute power; these, from their atrocious acts of cruelty, were called the Thirty Tyrants. In the space of eight months, we are told, fifteen hundred citizens fell victims to their avarice and vengeance, while many others fled from the country. At length Thrasybu'lus, aided by a band of patriots, expelled the tyrants from the seat of their power, and restored the democratic form of government.

7. An event, which happened about this time, reflected indelible disgrace upon the fickle-minded Athenians, which was the persecution and death of the illustrious philosopher, Soc'rates, a name at once the glory and the reproach of his country. The Sophists, whose futile logic he derided and exposed, represented him as an enemy to the religion of his country, because he attempted to introduce the knowledge of a Supreme Being, the Creator and Ruler of the universe, and to inculcate the belief in a future state of retribution; and being accused, moreover, of corrupting the youth, he was condemned by the assembly of Athens to die by poison.

8. He made his defence in person, with all the manly fortitude of conscious innocence; but the majority of his judges, being his personal enemies, determined on his ruin. During the forty days of his imprisonment, he conducted himself with the greatest dignity; refused to escape when an opportunity offered; conversed with his friends on subjects of moral philosophy, particularly the immortality of the soul; and

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Of the Athenians? What were the terms of peace? How did the war end?—6. What did Lysander do? In eight months, how many citizens perished? What did Thrasybulus do?—7. What events took place at this time? How did the Sophists represent him? Why?—8. How did he make his defence? What is said of him during his imprisonment?

when the appointed time arrived drank the fatal cup of hemlock, and died with the utmost composure. After the fatal deed was accomplished, the Athenians began to see the sad error into which they had fallen. The judges and accusers of Socrates were either put to death or banished from the city; a brazen statue, the workmanship of the celebrated Lysip′pus, was erected to his memory. Thus these fickle ancients endeavored to repair, in some degree, the injustice they had permitted against the most virtuous of their citizens.

9. On the death of Darius, the Persian throne was left to his son, Artaxerxes II, but his younger brother, Cyrus, attempted to dethrone him, and for that purpose employed about thirteen thousand Grecian troops; but both Cyrus and the Grecian commander were slain in a battle, which was fought at Cunax′a, near Babylon. The remainder of the Grecian army, which numbered about ten thousand, under the command of Xen′ophon, effected a most extraordinary retreat, traversing a hostile country sixteen hundred miles in extent, from Babylon to the shores of the Euxine. This celebrated return, usually called the Retreat of the Ten Thousand, is beautifully described by Xenophon himself, and is regarded as one of the most extraordinary exploits in military history.

10. The Grecian colonies in Asia having taken part with Cyrus, were assisted by the Spartans, under their king, Agesila′us. The Persian monarch, however, by means of bribes, induced Athens and other of the Grecian states, jealous of the power of the Lacedæmonians, to enter into a league against them. Agesilaus was obliged to return in order to protect his own dominions. He defeated the confederate forces in the battle of Corone′a, but the Spartan fleet was defeated by the Athenians under Conon near Cni′dus. A treaty of peace was finally concluded, by which it was agreed that all the Grecian cities of Asia should belong to Persia, and all others should be independent, with the exception of the islands of Lemnos, Scy′ros, and Imbros, which should remain under the dominion of Athens.

11. While Athens and Sparta were visibly tending to decline, Thebes emerged from obscurity, and for a time rose to

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How did he die? What is said of the Athenians?—9. What did Cyrus attempt? What did the remainder of the army effect after this event?—10. By whom were the Grecian colonies assisted? What did the Persians effect by bribes? What is said of Agesilaus? What battles were fought? What was agreed by the treaty of peace?—11. What state emerged from obscurity?

a degree of splendor eclipsing all the other states of Greece. The Spartans, jealous of its growing prosperity, took advantage of some internal dissension and seized upon the citadel. Pelop'idas, with a number of Thebans, fled for protection to Athens, where he planned the deliverance of his country. Disguising himself and twelve of his friends as peasants, he entered Thebes in the evening, and, joining a patriotic party of citizens, they surprised the leaders of the usurpation amidst the tumult of a feast, and put them all to death; and pursuing his success, in conjunction with his friend Epaminon'das, who shared with him the glory of the enterprise, he finally succeeded in expelling the Lacedæmonian garrison from the Theban territory.

12. A war necessarily ensued between Thebes and Sparta. The Theban army, under the command of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, gained the memorable battle of Leuctra, in which they lost only three hundred men, while the Spartan loss amounted to four thousand, together with their king, Cleom'brotus, who was numbered among the slain. The victorious Thebans, under Epaminondas, joined by many of the other Grecian states, entered the territories of Lacedæmon, and overran the country with fire and sword. The Spartans, who had long boasted that their women had never beheld the smoke of an enemy's camp, were mortified to see the invaders now encamped within the very sight of their capital.

13. Having humbled the power of Sparta, the Theban commander returned with his victorious army to his native city; but the war being again renewed, he gained another great victory over the Lacedæmonians and Athenians in the battle of Mantine'a. In the moment of victory he fell mortally wounded; and with the fall of Epaminondas, who was equally eminent as a philosopher, statesman, and general, ended the glory of Thebes.

The battle of Mantinea was followed by a peace between all the Grecian states, by which each city established its independence.

What did the Spartans do? What is said of Pelopidas?—12. What ensued? What battle did the Theban army gain? What was the loss on both sides? What is said of the Spartans?—13. What is said of the Theban commander? What followed the battle of Mantinea?

CHAPTER VII

PHILIP OF MACEDON. THE EXPLOITS AND DEATH OF ALEXANDER.—B. C. 360 TO 324.

GREECE was now in the most abject situation. The spirit of patriotism seemed utterly lost and military glory at an end. Athens, at this time the most prominent state, was sunk in luxury and pleasure; yet she was distinguished for her cultivation of literature and other arts. Sparta, no less changed from the simplicity of her ancient manners, and her power weakened by the new independence of the states of Peloponnesus, was in no capacity to attempt a recovery of her former greatness. Such was the situation of Greece when Philip of Macedon formed the ambitious design of bringing the whole country under his dominion.

2. The kingdom of Macedon had existed upwards of four hundred years, but it had not risen to any considerable eminence. It formed no part of the Greek confederacy, and had no voice in the Amphictyonic council. The inhabitants boasted of the same origin as the Greeks, but were considered by the latter as barbarians. Philip, who laid the foundation of the Macedo'nian Empire, or, as it is sometimes called, the Grecian Empire, because Greece in its most extensive sense included Macedonia, was sent at the age of ten years as a hostage to Thebes, where he enjoyed the advantage of an excellent education under Epaminondas. At the age of twenty-four years he ascended the throne of Macedon, by quietly deposing his nephew and having himself proclaimed king, 358 B. C.

3. Philip was possessed of great military and political talents, and was equally distinguished for his consummate artifice and address. In order to accomplish the subjugation of the Grecian states, he promoted dissensions among them, and employed agents in each with a view to having every public measure directed to his advantage. The attempt of the Pho'cians to occupy and cultivate a tract of land consecrated to the Delphian Apollo, gave rise to a contest called the Sacred War, in which most of the states of Greece were involved. The The'bans, Thessa'lians, and other states un-

CHAPTER VII.—1. What is said now of Greece? Of Athens? Of Sparta?—2. How long had the kingdom of Macedon existed? What is said of the inhabitants? Of Philip? At what age did he ascend the throne of Macedon?—3. What did he possess? What did he cherish? What gave rise to the Sacred War?

Danube Riv
Rome
ADRIATIC SEA
EUXINE SEA
Byzantium
CASPIAN SEA
OXUS Riv
SICILY
Troy
Corinth
Thebes
Athens
Sparta
Granicus
Sardis
ASIA MINOR
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Trapezus
ARMENIA
Issus
Damascus
Tyre
Sidon
Jerusalem
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
MESOPOTAMIA
ASSYRIA
MEDIA
Bactra
BACTRIANA
Alexandria Ultima
Gaza
Euphrates
Susiana
Susa
Persepolis
PERSIA
Alexandria
LIBYA
Memphis
Ammon
BABYLONIA
CHALDEA
PERSIAN GULF
Alexander's Route
Thebes
ARABIA
Nile Riv
RED SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
GREECE
B.C 360 - BC 324
CHAPTER VII
Scale of Miles

dertook without success to punish the Phocians. After their defeat the allies invited the assistance of Philip of Macedon.

4. Philip proposed to act as arbitrator of the matter in dispute, and caused himself to be elected a member of the Amphictyonic Council. Shortly after this event, the Loc'rians having encroached upon the consecrated ground of Delphi, and having refused to obey the order of the Amphictyonic Council, Philip was invited to vindicate their authority by force of arms. Philip began his hostilities by invading Phocis, the key to the territory of Attica. Æs'chines, the orator, moved by a bribe, endeavored to quiet the alarms of the Athenians, by ascribing to him a design only of punishing the sacrilege and vindicating the cause of Apollo. Demos'thenes, with the true spirit of a patriot, exposed the artful designs of the invader, and, with most animated eloquence, roused his countrymen to a vigorous effort for the preservation of their liberties. The attempt, however, was unsuccessful; the battle of Cheronæ'a decided the fate of Greece, and subjected all the states to the dominion of the king of Macedon, B. C. 337.

5. It was not the policy of the conqueror to treat the several states as a vanquished people; they were allowed to retain their separate independent governments, while he reserved for himself the direction and control of all national measures. Convoking a general council of the states, he laid before them his project for the invasion of Persia, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces of all the Grecian states. On the eve of this great enterprise, Philip was assasinated by Pausa'nias, the captain of his guards, while solemnizing the nuptials of his daughter, in the forty-seventh year of his age. The news of the event caused the most tumultuous joy among the Athenians, who indulged the vain hope of again recovering their liberty. But the visionary prospect was never realized. The spirit of the nation was gone, and in all their subsequent revolutions they only changed their masters.

6. On the death of Philip, his son Alexander, surnamed the Great, succeeded to the throne of Macedon, at the age of twenty years. The young king, having reduced to subjection

4. What did Philip propose? After this event what took place? How did he commence hostilities? What is said of Æschines and Demosthenes? What is said of the battle of Cheronæa?—5. What was the policy of the conqueror? Having convoked a council of the states, what did he lay before them? On the eve of this enterprise what happened to Philip? What did the news of this event cause among the Athenians?—6. Who succeeded Philip?

some of the states to the north of Macedon, turned the whole power of his arms against the revolted states of Greece. He defeated the Thebans with immense slaughter, caused their city to be razed to the ground, and thirty thousand of its inhabitants to be sold as slaves. These acts of severity so intimidated the other states of Greece that they immediately submitted to his dominion. Alexander then assembled the deputies of the Grecian states at Cor'inth, and renewed the proposal of invading Persia, and was appointed, as his father had been, the commander-in-chief of their united forces.

7. With an army of thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse, with the sum of only seventy talents and provisions for a single month, he crossed the Hel'lespont, and traversing Phry'gia, proceeded to the site of Troy and visited the tomb of Achilles, whom he pronounced the most fortunate of men in having Pat'roclus for his friend and Ho'mer for his panegyrist. Satraps of Darius Codoma'nus, resolving at once to crush the youthful hero, met him on the banks of the Grani'cus, with an army of one hundred thousand foot and twenty thousand horse. Here an obstinate battle was fought, in which the Persian forces were defeated with a loss, according to Plu'tarch, of twenty-two thousand men, while the Macedonian loss was only thirty-four. In this battle, Alexander escaped narrowly with his life—being attacked by an officer, who was about to cleave his head with a battle-axe, when the blow was prevented by Cly'tus, who cut off the hand of the officer with his cimiter, and thus saved the life of his sovereign.

8. The success of this battle was important to Alexander, as it put him in possession of Sar'dis with all its riches. He generously gave the citizens their liberty, and permitted them to live under their own laws. He soon after took Mile'tus, Halicarnas'sus, and other important places. The next important victory was obtained in the great battle of Issus. The Persian army, consisting of six hundred thousand men, was defeated with prodigious slaughter, no less than one hundred and ten thousand being killed, while the Macedonians numbered only four hundred and fifty among the slain.

How did he treat the Thebans? Having assembled the deputies of the Grecian states, what proposals did he renew?—7. What was the number of his army? Where did he proceed? By whom and where was he met? What was the issue of the battle and the loss on both sides? In this battle what is said of Alexander?—8. What places did he next take? Where was the next victory obtained? What was the number of the Persian army? The number of the slain on both sides?

The mother, wife, and two daughters of Darius fell into the hands of the conqueror, who treated them with the greatest delicacy and respect. Darius, on hearing of the kindness of Alexander towards his family, offered for their ransom the sum of ten thousand talents—about $10,000,000—and proposed a treaty of peace and alliance, with the further offer of his daughter in marriage, and all the country between the Euphra'tes and Æ'gean sea.

9. When the offer was laid before Alexander's council, Parme'nio is reported to have said, "If I were Alexander, I would accept the terms." "And so would I," replied Alexander, "were I Parmenio." After this he overran Syria, took Damascus, and laid siege to Tyre, which surrendered after a noble defence of seven months. On this occasion, the conqueror exercised an act of barbarous cruelty by causing two thousand citizens of Tyre to be crucified, besides all those who were put to the sword or sold into slavery. He then directed his march towards Jerusalem, which he entered without opposition. Having taken the city of Gaza, he inhumanly sold ten thousand of its inhabitants into slavery, and dragged Betis, its brave defender, at the wheel of his chariot, in imitation of Achilles' treatment of Hector after the taking of Troy.

10. Alexander next proceeded to Egypt, which readily submitted to his arms; and, with incredible fatigues, he led his army through the deserts of Libya to visit the temple of Jupiter-Ammon, and caused himself to be proclaimed the son of that deity. On his return he commenced the building of the city of Alexandria, afterwards the capital of Lower Egypt, and, for a time, one of the greatest commercial cities in the world. He is said to have founded twenty other cities during the course of his conquests. Returning from Egypt, he again received proposals from Darius, who offered to surrender to him the whole of his dominions to the west of the Euphrates; but he haughtily rejected the offer, saying, that "the world could no more admit of two masters than of two suns."

11. Having crossed the Euphrates, he was met at the village of Arbe'la by Darius, at the head of seven hundred

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Who fell into the hands of the conqueror? How were they treated? What did Darius offer for their ransom?—9. When the offer was laid before the council, what was said by Parmenio, and what was Alexander's reply? After the siege of Tyre what act of cruelty did he exercise? Having taken the city of Gaza, what did he do?—10. Where did he next proceed? On his return what city did he commence? What reply did he make to the proposals of Darius?—11. Where was he met by Darius?

thousand men. A dreadful battle was fought, in which the Persians were defeated, with a loss of three hundred thousand men, while that of Alexander was only about five hundred. This great conflict decided the fate of Persia. Darius first escaped to Media and afterwards into Bac'tria, where he was betrayed by Bessus, the satrap of that province, and murdered. Shortly after this event the whole Persian empire submitted to the conqueror.

12. Alexander now projected the conquest of India, and having penetrated beyond the Hydas'pes, defeated Po'rus, the illustrious king of that country. He still continued his march to the East; but when he arrived at the banks of the Gan'ges, his soldiers seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed any farther and demanded that they might be permitted to return to their country. Finding it impossible to overcome their reluctance, he returned to the In'dus, and pursuing his course southward by that river, arrived at the ocean and, sending his fleet to the Persian Gulf, led his army across the desert to Persep'olis, which, in a fit of frenzy, he ordered to be set on fire. From Persepolis he returned to Babylon, which he chose as the seat of his Asiatic empire. Here, giving himself up to every excess, he was seized with a violent fever, brought on by extreme intemperance, and thus died Alexander the Great, in the thirty-third year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, B. C. 324. Another account has it that Alexander's fever was contracted while he was planning commercial projects in the marshes of the Euphrates.

13. Perceiving that his end was approaching, he raised himself upon his elbow and presented his dying hand to his soldiers to kiss. Being asked to whom he left his empire, he answered, "To the most worthy." Alexander was the most renowned hero of antiquity. He possessed talents which might have rendered him distinguished as a statesman and a benefactor of mankind, but it is to his military exploits alone that he is entitled to the surname of Great. In the early part of his career he was distinguished for self-government, and exhibited many noble and generous traits of character; but when intoxicated with his extraordinary success, he gave

What ensued? What was the loss on both sides? What was the fate of Darius?—12. What did Alexander next project? When he arrived on the banks of the Ganges what happened? Where did he die? What was his age and the length of his reign?—13. Perceiving that his end was approaching, what did he do? What is said of Alexander? In the early part of his career? When intoxicated with success?

Empire of
ALEXANDER
THE GREAT
ILLYRIA
ITALY
Adriatic Sea
Ister R.
BALKAN
MACEDONIA
EPIRUS
Thebes
Athens
GREECE
Peloponnesus
Ionian Sea
MYSIA
BITHYNIA
BLACK SEA
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Heraclea
Sinope
Amisus
Trapezus
PAPHLAGONIA
Gordium
Halys R.
PONTUS
CAUCASUS MTS.
Sardis
LYDIA
PHRYGIA
Iconium
CAPPADOCIA
Artaxata
ARMENIA
CARIA
PAMPHYLIA
CILICIA
Rhodes
Myra
Issus
Edessa
MESOPOTAMIA
ASSYRIA
ATROPATENE
Tripolis
Antioch
Cyprus
Arados
SYRIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CYRENA
MARMARICA
Alexandria
Canopus
Sidon
Tyre
Palmyra
Damascus
Euphrates
BABYLONIA
Babylon
Acco
Sichem
Jerusalem
Gaza
PALESTINE
Arabian Desert
Erech
Arsino
Ihumaea
Libyan Desert
Oasis
EGYPT
ARABIA
Abydos
Coptos
Thebes
Arabia Petraea
RED SEA
Syene
Tropic
Macoraba
MT. SINAI
ETHIOPIA
Napata
R. NILE
Meroe
Saba
Mara
S
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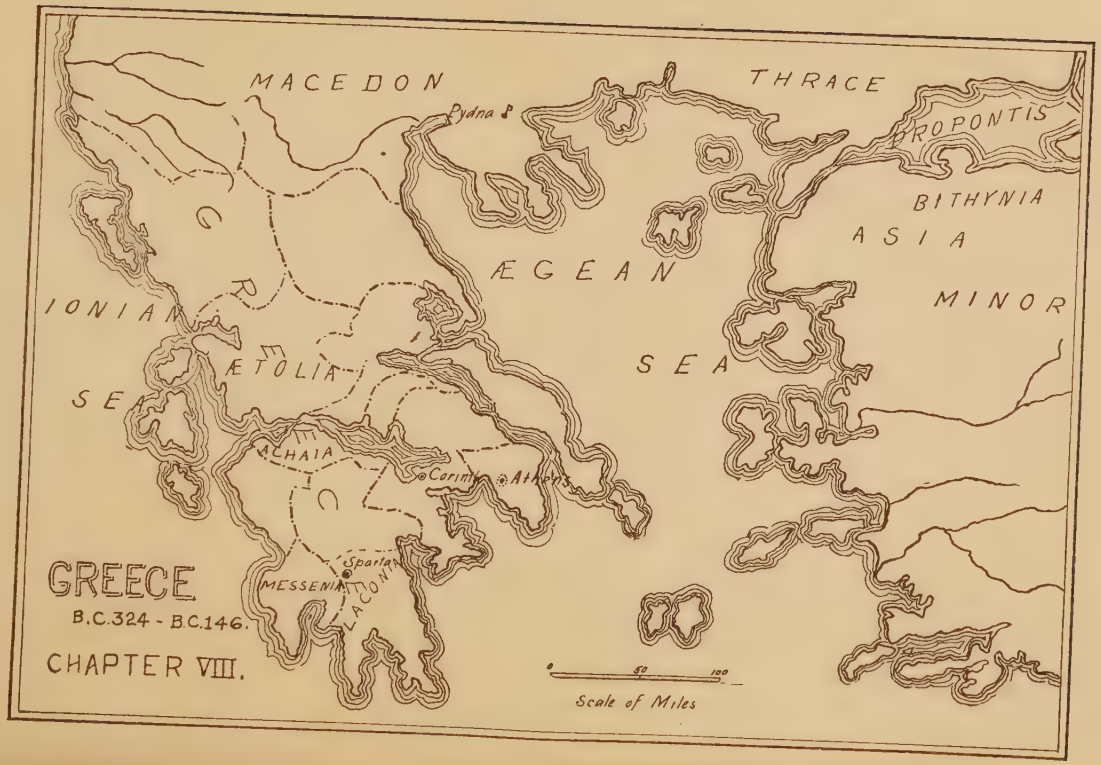
Massagetæ
Sacae
Margiana
Choramnians
Dahae
Hyrcania
Mardi
Parthia
Great Salt Desert
Persepolis
Paratacene
Hieratus
Persis
Pasargadae
Sargartii
Gedrosia
Persian Gulf
Tropic of Cancer
Arabian Sea
Seraphis
Oxus
Bactra
Bactriana
Sogdiana
Maracanda
Hindoo Koosh Mt.
Paropamisan Mt.
Alexandria
Arachosia
Drangiana
Phra
Pentapotamia
Nicea
Alexandria
Indus
Indian Desert
India


MACEDON
THRACE
Pydna
PROPONTIS
BITHYNIA
ASIA
MINOR
ÆGEAN
SEA
IONIAN
SEA
ÆTOLIA
ACHAIA
Corinth
Athens
Sparta
MESSENIA
LACONIA
GREECE
B.C.324 - B.C.146.
CHAPTER VIII.
50
100
Scale of Miles

himself up to unbounded indulgence and to deeds of cruelty and ingratitude. He caused Parmenio, his most distinguished general, who had assisted him in gaining all his victories, to be assassinated on mere suspicion. His friend Cly'tus, who had saved his life in the battle of the Granicus, he struck dead upon the spot, because he contradicted him when heated with wine. He caused the philosopher Callis'thenes to be put to death for refusing to pay him divine honors.

CHAPTER VIII

FROM THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER TO THE SUBJUGATION OF GREECE BY THE ROMANS.—B. C. 324 TO 146.

ALEXANDER having named no successor, his vast empire was divided into thirty-three governments, and distributed among as many of his principal officers. Hence arose a series of intrigues, fierce and sanguinary wars, which resulted in the total extinction of every member of Alexander's family, and finally terminated in a new division of the empire into four kingdoms, namely, that of Egypt under Ptolemy; Macedo'nia, including Greece, under Cassan'der; Thrace, together with Bithyn'ia, under Lysima'chus; and Syria, under Seleu'cus.

2. The history of the Grecian states, from the period of Alexander's death to the time of their subjugation by the Romans, presents only a series of uninteresting revolutions. When the news of this event reached Athens, Demosthenes once more made a noble effort to vindicate the national freedom, and to arouse his countrymen to shake off the yoke of Macedon. His counsels so far prevailed that the Greeks formed a confederacy for the purpose of recovering their liberty. But they were finally defeated by Antip'ater, and Athens was obliged to purchase peace by the sacrifice of ten of her public speakers, among whom the renowned orator Demosthenes was included. But to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, he put an end to his own life by taking poison.

Whom did he cause to be assassinated? Whom did he strike dead? CHAPTER VIII.—1. How was the empire divided? What arose? Name the four chief kingdoms.—2. From Alexander's death what is said of the history of the Grecian states. When the news reached Athens what did Demosthenes do? What was his end?

3. Under the administration of Polysper'chon, who succeeded Antipater in the government of Macedon, independence for a short time was restored to the Grecian states. Scenes of turbulence were soon renewed among the Athenians; they put to death many of the friends of Antipater, and among the rest the venerable Pho'cion, now upwards of eighty years of age. He was eminent in his public character and private virtues, and had been forty-five times governor of Athens. To a friend who lamented his fate, he said, "This is only what I long expected. It is thus that Athens has rewarded her most illustrious citizens."

Cassander, who succeeded Polysperchon, appointed Demet'rius Phale'reus governor of Athens. Under his wise administration, which continued twelve years, the city enjoyed a considerable degree of prosperity, and Athenians, to testify their gratitude, erected no less than three hundred and sixty statues to his memory.

4. The last effort made to revive the expiring liberty of Greece, was the formation of the Achæ'an League, which was a union of twelve of the smaller states for that object. The government of this confederacy was committed to Ara'tus, a young man of eminent abilities, who took the title of prætor. He formed the noble design of liberating his country from the dominion of Macedon, and establishing the independence of all Greece; but the jealousy of some of the principal states, particularly of Sparta, rendered the plan abortive.

Aratus was succeeded by Philopœ'men, who triumphed over the Spartans and Æto'lians, but in an expedition against the Messe'nians, who had revolted, he was defeated and slain. Philopœmen was styled the "last of the Greeks," because after him Greece produced no leader worthy of her former glory.

5. The Macedonians having declared war against the Ætolians, the latter applied for aid to the Romans, who had now become the most powerful nation in the world. The offer was joyfully accepted by the Romans, who had long wished for an opportunity of adding this devoted country to their dominion. Their army, under the command of Quin'tus

3. Under the administration of Polysperchon what was said? What is said of Phocion? What reply did he make to a friend? Who was appointed governor of Athens? What is said of his administration? —4. What was the last effort to revive the liberty of Greece? To whom was the government committed? What did he form? Who succeeded Aratus? What was he styled?—5. What is said of the Macedonians? What was done by their army?

Flami'nius, defeated Philip, king of Macedon, and proclaimed liberty to all the Grecian states. About thirty years after this event, the Romans, under the command of Paul'us Æmi'lius, again invaded Greece, in a war with Perse'us, the son of Philip. He was entirely defeated in the battle of Pyd'na, and falling into the hands of the conqueror, with all his family, was led captive to Rome, to grace the triumph of the general. Macedonia was thus reduced to a Roman province, B. C. 167.

6. The Romans, already jealous of the power of the Achæan League, endeavored to weaken it by cherishing divisions among the states, and sought the earliest opportunity of again unsheathing the sword against Greece. At length the Spartans, in a contest with the Achæan states, applied for assistance to Rome. The Romans, under the command of Metel'lus, marched into Greece and gained a complete victory over the Achæan army. The consul Mummius completed the conquest by taking and destroying the city of Corinth, in which the remainder of the Achæan forces had taken refuge. The Achæan constitution was dissolved, and all Greece was reduced to a Roman province, under the name of Acha'ia, B. C. 146.

7. In reviewing the history of this extraordinary people, we find much to admire and much to condemn. In point of genius, taste, learning, patriotism, and valor, the Greeks surpassed all the other nations of antiquity. With regard to their forms of government, they were far from corresponding in practise with what they expressed in theory. Even in the palmiest days of Greece, we look in vain for that beautiful idea presented by a well-regulated commonwealth. The condition of the people frequently partook more of servitude than of liberty. Slaves formed the great majority of the inhabitants of the Grecian states; and bondage being a consequence of the contraction of debt, even by free men, a great proportion of these were subject to the tyrannical control of their fellow-citizens. They were perpetually divided into factions, and torn by internal dissensions, which finally led to the downfall of their liberties.

8. In pursuing the history of Athens, the mind is forcibly

When did the Romans invade Greece? What is said of Philip? What was his fate?—6. What is said of the Romans? Who completed the conquest of Greece? To what was it reduced?—7. In reviewing the history what do we find? What is said of the forms of government? Of the people? Of slaves?—8. In pursuing the history of Athens how is the mind struck?

struck with the injustice and ingratitude frequently manifested towards the most illustrious of her citizens. Miltiades, Aristides, Themistocles, Phocion, Cimon, and Socrates, were all sentenced to banishment or death, yet the Athenians, with their characteristic fickleness and inconstancy, did ample justice to their merits, and sometimes punished those by whom they were accused. The most remarkable circumstance which strikes us, in comparing the later with the more early period of Grecian history, is the total change in the genius and spirit of the people. The ardor of patriotism, the thirst for military glory and love of liberty, decline with the rising grandeur of the nation; while a taste for the fine arts, a love of science and of luxury are introduced.

CHAPTER IX

GREEK LIFE, INSTITUTIONS, AND ARTS.

PHILOSOPHY.—Among the pagan Greeks philosophy was divided into various sects or schools. Of these, the Ion'ic sect was the most ancient, founded by Tha'les, B. C. 640. He was eminently distinguished for his knowledge of geometry and astronomy, and taught the belief of a first cause and overruling Providence, but erroneously supposed the Deity to animate the universe, as the soul does the body.

The Italian, or Pythago'rean sect, was founded by Pythag'oras, who taught the absurd doctrine of the transmigration of souls through different bodies. He believed the earth to be a sphere, the planets to be inhabited, and the fixed stars to be suns and centres of other systems.

The Socrat'ic school was founded by Soc'rates, who was esteemed the wisest and most virtuous of the Greeks, and the father of moral philosophy. He taught the belief of a First Cause, whose beneficence is equal to His power, the Creator and Ruler of the universe. He inculcated the immor-

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Who were sentenced to death or banishment? What remarkable circumstance strikes us? What declined?

CHAPTER IX.—**Philosophy.**—What is said of philosophy among the Greeks? Who was the founder of the Ionic sect? What is said of him? Who was the founder of the Pythagorean sect? What did he teach? Who was the founder of the Socratic sect? What did he teach and inculcate?

tality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments.

The Cynics, a ridiculous sect founded by Antis'thenes, and supported by Diogenes, condemned knowledge as useless, renounced social enjoyments and conveniences of life, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective.

The Academic sect was founded by Pla'to, a philosopher whose doctrines have had, perhaps, a more extensive influence over the minds of mankind than those of any other of the ancients. Plato had the most sublime ideas of the Deity and His attributes. He incorrectly taught, however, that the human soul is a portion of the Divinity, and that this alliance with the Eternal Mind might be improved into actual intercourse with the Supreme Being, by abstracting the soul from all the corruptions it derives from the body. He gave his lectures in the grove of Academus, near Athens.

The Peripatet'ic sect was founded by Aristo'tle, who established his school in the Lyce'um, at Athens. His philosophy was taught in the schools for sixteen hundred years.

The Skeptical sect was founded by Pyr'rho, who stupidly inculcated universal doubt as the only true wisdom. There was, in his opinion, no essential difference between vice and virtue, further than as human compact had discriminated them. Tranquillity of mind he considered to be the greatest happiness, and this was to be obtained by absolute indifference to all dogmas or opinions.

The Sto'ic sect was founded by Ze'no. The stoics inculcated fortitude of mind, denied that pain is an evil, and endeavored to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity. They taught that virtue consists in accommodating the dispositions of the mind to the immutable laws of nature, and vice in opposing these laws. Vice, therefore, they regarded as folly, and virtue the only true wisdom.

The Epicu'reans, named from Epicu'rus, the founder of the sect, maintained that the supreme happiness of man consists in pleasure.

The principle of all things was a subject of special re-

Who founded the Cynic sect? What did he condemn? Who founded the Academic sect? What did he teach? Where did he give his lectures? Who founded the Peripatetic sect? Who founded the Skeptic sect? What did he inculcate? Who was the founder of the Stoic sect? What did they inculcate? What did they teach? What is said of the Epicureans? What was a subject of special research?

search by the philosophers of Greece. Tha'les taught that this principle consisted of water; Anaxag'oras, of infinite air; Herac'litus, of fire; Democ'ritus, of atoms; Pythag'oras, of unity; Pla'to, of God, idea, and matter; Aristot'le, of matter, form, and privation; Ze'no, of God and matter; Epicu'rus, of matter and empty space.

The Seven Wise Men.—The seven wise men of Greece were Tha'les, of Miletus; So'lon, of Athens; Bias, of Priene; Chi'lo, of Lacedæmon; Pit'tacus, of Mitylene; Cleobu'lus, of Lindos, and Perian'der, of Corinth. Instead of Periander, some enumerate My'son, and others Anachar'sis.

The Council of the Amphic'tyons.—This Council is supposed to have been instituted by Amphictyon, the son of Deucalion, king of Thessaly, at an early period of the history of Greece. It consisted, at first, of twelve deputies, from the twelve different cities or states; but the number was afterwards increased to thirty. They met twice a year—in the spring at Delphi, and in the autumn at Thermopylæ. The objects of this assembly were to bind in strict unity the states which were represented; to consult for their mutual welfare and defence; to decide all differences between cities; and to try offences against the laws of nations.

Public Games.—There were four public and solemn games in Greece, namely, the Olym'pic, Pyth'ian, Ne'mean, and Isth'mian. The exercises practised at these games were leaping, running, throwing, boxing, and wrestling; also the horse and chariot races, and contests between the poets, orators, musicians, philosophers, and artists.

The Olympic games were instituted, it is supposed, in honor of Jupiter Olympus, B. C. 776 years; they were celebrated in the town of Olympia, in the first month of every fourth year, and lasted five days. The space between one celebration and another was called an Olym'piad, by which the Greeks computed their time. The prize bestowed on the victor was a crown of olive; yet trifling as was this reward, it was considered as the highest honor, and was sought for with the

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What were the various opinions of the philosophers on this subject?

The Seven Wise Men.—Who were the seven wise men of Greece?

The Council of the Amphictyons.—By whom was it instituted? Of what did it consist? Where did they meet? What was the object of this assembly?

Public Games.—What were the four public games? What were the exercises? By whom were the Olympic games instituted? How often were they celebrated? What was the prize of the victor? What is said of it?

OLYMPIC GAMES.

utmost eagerness. The victor was greeted with loud acclamations, and his return home was in the style of a conqueror.

The Pythian games were celebrated every fourth year, in the second of every Olympiad, near Delphi, in honor of Apollo. The reward of the victors was a crown of laurel.

The Nemean games were celebrated in the town of Nemea every third year. The victors were crowned with parsley.

The Isthmian games, so called from being celebrated on the isthmus of Corinth, were instituted in honor of Neptune, and observed every third or fifth year. They were held so sacred that even a public calamity could not prevent their celebration. The victors were rewarded with a garland of pine leaves.

Literature.—No nation of ancient or modern times surpassed the Greeks in literary taste and genius. In subsequent ages great advances have been made in science, and in some of the branches of polite learning, yet in chaste and beautiful composition, in brilliancy of fancy, in harmony of periods, in various forms of intellectual efforts, under the name of poetry, oratory, and history, they are still unrivalled.

In Greece poetry was extremely ancient; it was cultivated even before the introduction of letters. In epic poetry, Homer stands unrivalled. In lyric poetry, the names of Ana′creon, Sap′pho, and Pin′dar, have attained imperishable fame. The dramatic poetry of the Greeks will presently be referred to.

History did not engage the attention of the Greeks till a comparately late period; but Herod′otus, Thucyd′ides, and Xen′ophon will ever be numbered among the greatest masters of narration.

Oratory was cultivated among the Greeks, particularly the Athenians, with the utmost care. The study of eloquence formed the principal employment of the young citizens at Athens. It was that which opened the way to the highest offices, reigned absolute in the assemblies, decided the most

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How often were the Pythian games celebrated? In honor of whom? What was the reward of the victors? At what place were the Nemean celebrated? With what were the victors crowned? Why were the Isthmian games so called? What is said of them? What was the reward of the victors?

Literature.—What is said of the Greeks in literary taste? In what are they still unrivalled? What is said of poetry? Of Homer? Of Anacreon, etc.? What is said of History? What is said of Oratory? The study of Eloquence?

important affairs of the state, and was an almost unlimited power to those who possessed the talent in an eminent degree. Music was cultivated with great success, and was considered an essential part of the education of the youth. The ancients ascribed to it wonderful effects; they believed it well calculated to calm the passions, soften the manners and even to harmonize nations naturally rude and barbarous. Dancing also was cultivated with considerable care.

Arts.—In the more useful and necessary arts of life, the Greeks were never much distinguished. But in those which are termed fine arts, Greece far surpassed all other nations of antiquity; and those specimens which have survived the wreck of time are regarded as models for imitation, and are acknowledged as standards of excellence, in the judgment of the most polished nations of modern times. During the administration of Pericles, which is called the golden age of Grecian art. architecture, sculpture, and painting were carried to the summit of perfection. The architecture consisted of three distinct orders, the Dor'ic, the Ion'ic, and the Corin'thian. The Doric has a masculine grandeur, and an air of strength superior to both the other orders. It is, therefore, well adapted to works of great magnitude. Of this order is the temple of Theseus, at Athens, built ten years after the battle of Marathon. It is almost entire at the present day.

The Ionic is distinguished for its elegance and simplicity, the latter quality being essentially requisite in true beauty. Of this order were the temple of Apollo, at Miletus, the temple of the Delphic oracle, and the temple of Dia'na, at Eph'esus. The Corinthian assumed the highest magnificence by uniting the characters of all the orders.

In sculpture the Greeks excelled no less than in architecture. Specimens of their skill in this respect are perfect models. The Dying Gladiator, the Venus, and the Laoc'oon of the Grecian sculptors have an imperishable fame.

In painting, though very few specimens have descended to us, they are supposed to have excelled. The productions

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What is said of Music? What did they ascribe to it? What is said of Dancing?

Arts.—In what were the Greeks never greatly distinguished? In what did they surpass all others? What were the three orders of architecture? What is said of the Doric? How was the Ionic distinguished? What did the Corinthian effect? What is said of sculpture? What have an imperishable fame? What is said of painting?

of Zeux'is, Apel'les, Timan'thes, and others which perished, were highly extolled by the writers of antiquity.

Private and Domestic Life.—The dress of the Greeks differed much from that of most of the modern nations. The men wore an inner garment called a tunic, over which they threw a mantle; their shoes or sandals were fastened under the soles of their feet with thongs. The women, particularly at Athens, wore a white tunic, which was closely bound with a broad sash, and descended in graceful folds to the ground; also a shorter robe, confined round the waist with a ribbon, and bordered at the bottom with stripes of various colors. Over this they sometimes put a robe which was worn much like the present scarf. In the earlier ages of Greece the inhabitants usually wore no covering on their heads, but in aftertimes they made use of a kind of hat, tied under the chin. The women, however, always had their heads covered. The Athenians wore in their hair a golden grasshopper, as an emblem of the antiquity of their nation, intimating that they sprang from the earth. In Sparta the kings, magistrates, and citizens were but little distinguished by dress. The military costume was of a red color.

The meals of the Greeks were usually four in number. The breakfast was taken about the rising of the sun; the next meal at midday; then came the afternoon repast; and, lastly, the supper, which was the principal meal. Everything capable of sustaining life was used as food, though they were generally fond of fish. Water and wine were the usual drink. At first they sat upright at their meals; but, as luxury prevailed, couches were introduced, on which the guests reclined while at table. Marriage among the Greeks was only lawful when the consent of the parents or other relatives could be obtained. Polygamy was allowed only after great calamities, such as war or pestilence.

The Grecian women seldom appeared in strange company, but were confined to the remote parts of the house, into which no male visitor was admitted. When they went abroad, they wore veils to conceal their faces. It was disreputable, however, for them to appear much abroad. Children were

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Private and Domestic Life.—What was the dress of the men? Of the women? What did the Athenians wear? What was the number of their meals, and when were they taken? What was used? How did they sit at their meals? What is said of marriage? What was allowed? What is said of the Grecian women? What was disreputable?

required to maintain their parents in old age; but, according to the laws of Solon, parents who did not bring up their children to some useful employment could not exact a support from them.

The funerals of the Greeks were attended with many ceremonies, showing that they considered the duties belonging to the dead to be of the highest importance. In their view, it was the most awful of all imprecations to wish that a person might be deprived of funeral honors.*

Of some of the peculiar institutions of Greece, the court of the Areop'agus and Os'tracism were most remarkable. The Areopagus, which signifies the Hill of Mars, from the place where it was held, was the most distinguished and venerable court of justice in ancient times, and took cognizance of crimes, abuses, and innovations, either in religion or government. The Areopagites were the guardians of education and manners, and inspected the laws. To laugh in this assembly was an unpardonable act of levity.

One of the absurd peculiarities in the government of Athens was the practice of Ostracism. This was a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down the name of the individual most offensive to him; and he who was marked out by the greatest number of votes was banished from his country for a specified time, often for a number of years. It was not necessary that any crime should be alleged. Neither the property nor the honor of the exile sustained the least injury. By this institution the most flagrant injustice was often committed against the most virtuous citizens.

Origin of Tragedy.—Tragedy owes its origin to the feasts of Bac'chus, usually celebrated at the time of the vintage; at first it consisted of a few rude comic scenes, intermixed with songs in praise of that god. Thes'pis, owing to several improvements which he made in tragedy, is generally esteemed its inventor, although there were several tragic and comic

* For the Oracles and Religion of the Greeks, see the chapter on "Mythology."

What were children required to do? What is said of funerals? What was thought the most awful imprecation? What were some of the peculiar institutions? What is said of the Areopagus? Of what were they the guardians? What was deemed an unpardonable act of levity? What was the Ostracism? By this institution, what was often committed?

Origin of Tragedy.—To what does tragedy owe its origin? What is said of Thespis?

HILL OF MARS, ATHENS.

poets before his time. He carried the actors about in carts, whereas previously they were accustomed to sing or recite in the streets, wherever chance led them; he also caused their faces to be smeared over with lees of wine, instead of acting without disguise, as at first; and he introduced a character among the chorus, who, to give the actors time to rest, repeated the adventures of some illustrious person. The alterations which Thespis made in tragedy gave room for Æs'chylus to make still further improvements. He was a man of superior genius, and took upon himself to reform rather than to create tragedy anew. He gave masks to his actors, adorned them with robes and trains, and made them wear buskins. Instead of a cart, he erected a stage of a moderate elevation, and entirely changed their style, which, from being merely burlesque, became serious and majestic. But the most important and essential addition of Æschylus consisted in the vivacity and spirit of the action, sustained by the dialogue of the persons of the drama, introduced by him—in the artful working up of the stronger passions, especially of terror and pity, which, by alternately afflicting and agitating the soul with mournful and terrible objects, produces a grateful pleasure and delight from that very trouble and emotion; and, lastly, in the choice of his subjects, which were always great, noble, interesting, and contained within due bounds by the unity of time, place, and action. Of the ninety tragedies composed by Æschylus, about seven are now in existence.

Æschylus was in sole possession of the glory of the stage, when a young rival made his appearance in the person of Soph'ocles, to dispute with him the palm. Twenty times he obtained the prize of poetry over his competitors. Of one hundred and twenty tragedies which he composed, only seven are extant, but these prove him to have carried the drama almost to perfection.

Eurip'ides was the contemporary and the great rival of Sophocles. But nineteen of his seventy-five tragedies remain.*

* For a fuller account of ancient Greece, see Dr. William Smith's *History of Greece.*

How did Thespis carry his actors? What improvement did Æschylus make? Of his tragedies, how many remain? Who disputed the palm with him? What is said of Euripides?

BOOK IV

ROME

CHAPTER I

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE CITY TO THE EXPULSION OF TARQUIN, THE LAST KING OF ANCIENT ROME.—B. C. 753 TO 509.

THE early history of this celebrated empire, like that of the other nations of antiquity, is greatly involved in obscurity. But the history of Rome is properly the history of a city, which gradually extended its imperial sway, first over all Italy, then over all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea. According to the account of the poets, Æne'as, a Trojan prince, having escaped from the destruction of his native city, after a variety of adventures, landed on the shores of Italy, where he was kindly received by Lati'nus, king of the Latins, who gave him his daughter Lavin'ia in marriage, and made him heir to his throne. The succession continued in the family of Æneas for about four hundred years, until the reign of Nu'mitor, who was the fifteenth king in a direct line from the Trojan hero.

2. Rhe'a Syl'via, the daughter of Numitor, was the mother of twin brothers, named Rom'ulus and Re'mus. The mother, who had been a vestal virgin, was condemned to be buried alive, the usual punishment for vestals who had suffered a violation of their chastity, and the twins were ordered to be thrown into the Tiber. But as the water into which they were cast was too shallow to drown them, they were discovered and rescued from their perilous situation by Faus'tulus, the king's herdsman, who brought them up as his own children. After a variety of adventures Romulus and Remus,

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CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the early history? What account do the poets give of Æneas?—2. What is said of Rhea Sylvia? To what was the mother condemned? What is said of the twins? By whom were they found? What is related of Romulus and Remus?

we are told, were instrumental in restoring Numitor, their grandfather, to his throne, from which he had been expelled by the usurpation of his brother, Aumulius.

3. Subsequent to this event the two brothers resolved to build a city on the hills where they had passed their youth, and formerly tended their flocks; but a contest arose between them relative to the sovereignty, which proved fatal to Remus. It is related that he was killed by his brother, who struck him dead on the spot, for contemptuously leaping over the city wall.

Romulus being thus left the sole commander, persevered in the building of the city, which, from his own name, he called Rome. It was founded B. C. 753. Having been chosen first king, Romulus made it an asylum for fugitives, and by this means the number of inhabitants rapidly increased.

4. The newly elected monarch is said to have divided the people into three Tribes, each consisting of ten Cu'riæ; and also into two orders of Patri'cians and Plebe'ians. The senate consisted of one hundred of the principal citizens; it was afterwards increased to two hundred members. Besides a guard of three hundred men to attend his person, the king was always preceded by twelve Lictors, armed with axes bound up in a bundle of rods. The duty of the lictors was to execute the laws. These wise regulations contributed daily to increase the strength of the new city; multitudes flocked to it from the adjacent towns, and women only were wanted to confirm its growing prosperity. Romulus, in order to supply this deficiency, invited the Sa'bines, a neighboring nation, to a festival in honor of Neptune; and while the strangers were intent upon the spectacle, a number of the Roman youth rushed in among the women and carried them off by violence.

5. A sanguinary war followed, which had brought the city almost to the brink of ruin, when an accommodation was happily effected through the interposition of the Sabine women who had been carried off by the Romans. Romulus reigned thirty-seven years, and after his death received divine honors, under the name of Quiri'nus.

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3. What did they resolve to do? What arose? What is related? What did Romulus now do?—4. How did he divide the people? Of what did the senate consist? By what was the king attended? To what did these regulations contribute? What were wanted? How was this deficiency supplied?—5. What followed? How long did Romulus reign?

6. On the death of Romulus, Nu'ma Pompil'ius, a native of Cures, a Sabine city, was elected second king of Rome. He softened the fierce and warlike disposition of the Romans, by cultivating the arts of peace and inculcating obedience to the laws and respect for religion. He built the Temple of Ja'nus, which was to be open during war, and shut in time of peace. He died at the age of eighty, after a reign of forty-three years.

7. Tul'lus Hosti'lius was the third king of Rome. His reign is memorable for the combat between the Hora'tii and Curia'tii, which is said to have taken place during a war against the Albans. There were, at the time, in each army, three brothers of one birth; those of the Romans called the Horatii and those of the Albans, the Curiatii, all six remarkable for their strength, activity, and courage. To these it was resolved to commit the fate of the two parties. Finally, the champions met in combat. The contest was for some time obstinate and doubtful; but victory at length declared in favor of Rome. The three Curiatii were slain, and only one of the Horatii survived. By this victory the Romans became masters of Alba. Hostilius died after a reign of thirty-two years.

8. After the death of the late monarch, An'cus Mar'cius, the grandson of Numa, was elected fourth king of Rome. He conquered the Latins, and suppressed the insurrections of the Veien'tes, Fidina'tes, and Vol'sci. But his victories over his enemies were far less important than his exertions in fortifying and embellishing the city; he erected a prison for malefactors, and built the port of Ostia, at the mouth of the Ti'ber. Ancus died in the twenty-fourth year of his reign.

9. Tarqui'nius Pris'cus, or Tar'quin the elder, the son of a merchant of Corinth, next succeeded to the throne. His reign is chiefly distinguished for his triumph over the Sabines and Latins, and for his embellishment of the city with works of utility and magnificence. He built the walls of hewn stone, erected the circus, founded the capitol, and constructed sewers or aqueducts for the purpose of draining the city of its rubbish and superfluous waters. Tarquin was assassi-

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6. Who succeeded? What did he do? What was his age? How long did he reign?—7. Who was the third king of Rome? For what is his reign memorable? Relate the circumstances of this combat?—8. Who was the fourth king of Rome? Whom did he conquer? What did he erect? When did he die?—9. Who next succeeded to the throne? For what was his reign distinguished? What did he build? How did he die?

nated in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and in the thirty-eighth of his reign.

10. Ser'vius Tul'lius, who was the son of a female slave, and son-in-law of the late monarch, secured his election to the throne through the intrigues of Tanaquil, his mother-in-law. In order to determine the increase or diminution of his subjects, he instituted the census, by which, at the end of every fifth year, the number of the citizens, their dwellings, and the amount of their property were ascertained. The census was closed by an expiatory sacrifice called a lustrum; hence the period of five years was usually called a lustrum.

11. Servius, in the early part of his reign, had married his two daughters to the two sons of Tarquin, the late king, whose names were Tarquin and Aruns. But as their dispositions corresponded with those of his daughters, he took care to give Tullia, the younger, who was of a violent disposition, to Aruns, who was mild, and the elder to Tarquin, who was haughty and ambitious, hoping thereby that they would correct each other's defects. Tarquin and Tullia, however, murdered their consorts and were shortly afterwards married; and as one crime often produces another, they caused the assassination of Servius, after which Tarquin usurped the throne. Tullia, in her eagerness to salute her husband as king, is said to have driven her chariot over the dead body of her father, which lay exposed in the street that led to the senate. Thus died Servius Tullius, after a useful and prosperous reign of forty-four years.

12. Tarquin, surnamed the Proud, having placed himself upon the throne, as we have seen, soon disgusted the people by his tyranny and cruelty. He refused the late king's body a burial, under the pretence of his having been a usurper, and, conscious of being hated by all virtuous persons, he ordered all those whom he suspected to have been attached to Servius to be put to death.

To divert the attention of the people from his illegal method of obtaining the crown, he kept them constantly employed either in wars or in erecting public buildings. While besieging Ardea, a small town not far from Rome, Sextus Tarquinius, the king's son, offered violence to Lucretia, a

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10. Who succeeded to the throne? What did he institute?—11. What is related of his two daughters? How did Servius die? Who succeeded to the throne? What did Tullia do in her eagerness to salute her husband as king?—12. What did Tarquin refuse? What did he order? What is related of Sextus?

noble matron, the wife of his cousin Tarquinius Collatinus. Thereupon the lady's husband and her father, with their friends Valerius and Brutus, swore to avenge the crime.

13. The body of Lucretia was brought out and exposed to view in the public forum, where Brutus, who had hitherto acted as an idiot in order to elude the cruelty of Tarquin, inflamed the ardor of the citizens by displaying the horrid transaction. He obtained a decree of the senate that Tarquin and his family should be forever banished from Rome; at the same time making it a capital offence for any one to plead for his return. That monarch was accordingly expelled from his kingdom in the twenty-fifth year of his reign, and the regal government abolished, after it had lasted for two hundred and forty-four years.

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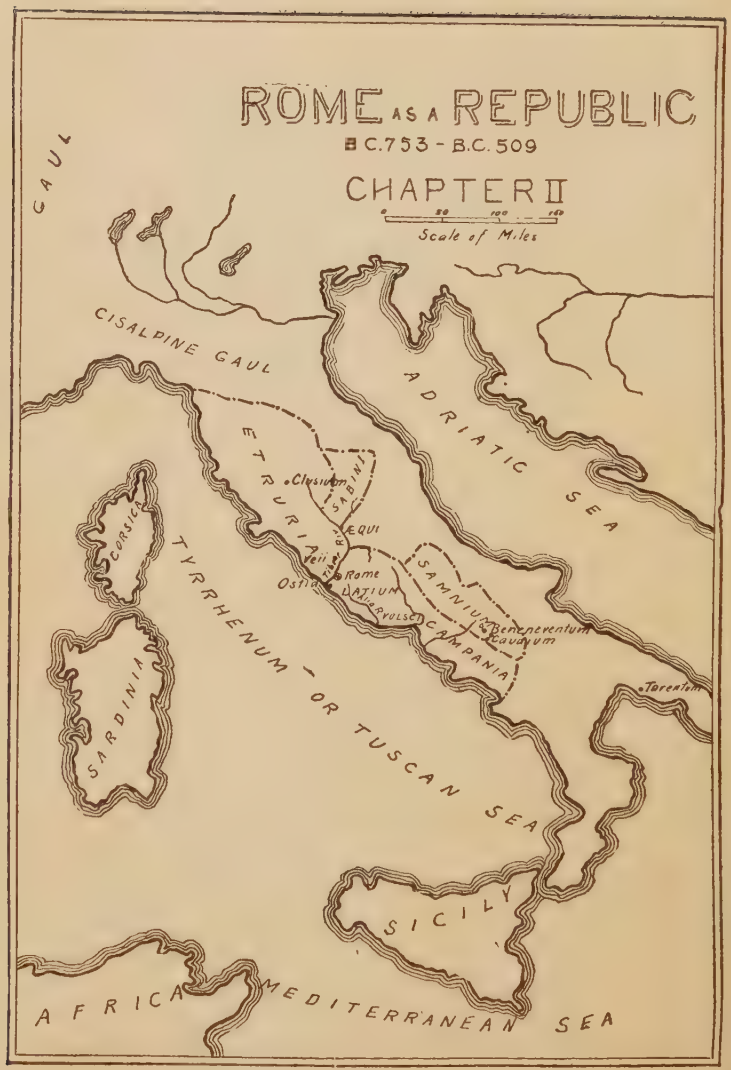
13. What did Brutus do? What did he obtain? How long had the regal government continued?


ROME AS A REPUBLIC
B.C. 753 - B.C. 509
CHAPTER II
Scale of Miles
GAUL
CISALPINE GAUL
ADRIATIC SEA
ETRURIA
Clusium
SABINI
AEQUI
Veii
Rome
LATIUM
Ostia
VOLSCI
SAMNIUM
Beneventum
Cavdium
CAMPANIA
Torentum
CORSICA
SARDINIA
TYRRHENUM OR TUSCAN SEA
SICILY
AFRICA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

CHAPTER II

ROME AS A REPUBLIC

FROM THE ABOLITION OF THE REGAL POWER TO THE FIRST PUNIC WAR.—B. C. 509 TO 264.

THE regal authority having been abolished, a republican form of government was established on its ruins. The supreme power was still reserved to the senate and people, but instead of a king, two magistrates, called Consuls, were annually chosen, with all authority, privileges, and ensigns of royalty. Brutus, the deliverer of his country, and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were chosen the first Consuls of Rome.

2. But scarcely had the new republic begun to exist when a conspiracy was formed for its destruction. Some young men of the principal families of the state, who had been educated near the king, and had shared in all the luxuries and pleasures of the court, formed a party in Rome in favor of Tarquin, and undertook to reëstablish the monarchy. Their design was fortunately discovered before it could be carried into execution; and, surprising as it may appear, the two sons of Brutus were found among the number of the conspirators. Few situations could be more affecting than that of Brutus,—a father and a judge. He was impelled by justice to condemn; by nature to spare the children he loved.

Being brought to trial before him, they were condemned to be beheaded in his presence, while the father beheld the sad spectacle with unaltered countenance. He ceased to be a father, as it has been beautifully observed, that he might execute the duties of the consul, and chose to live bereft of his children rather than to neglect the public punishment of crime.

3. The insurrection in the city being thus suppressed, Tarquin now resolved to regain his former throne by foreign assistance, and, having prevailed upon the Veientes to aid him, advanced towards Rome at the head of a considerable army; but he was defeated by the Romans, under the command of the two Consuls, Brutus and Vale'rius. The latter had been elected in the place of Collatinus. But while the Ro-

CHAPTER II.—1. The regal power being abolished, what was established? What two magistrates were chosen? Who were the first two consuls?—2. What is said of the republic? Who were found among the conspirators? What was their fate? What is said of Brutus?—3. What did Tarquin now resolve? By whom was he defeated?

mans rejoiced in the victory they obtained, they had to lament the death of Brutus, who fell in the engagement, and the Roman matrons honored his memory by wearing mourning for a whole year. Valerius returned to the city, and was the first Roman who enjoyed the honor of a triumph.

4. In the meantime, Tarquin, undaunted by his misfortunes, prevailed upon Porsen'na, one of the kings of Etru'ria, to espouse his cause, and in conjunction with him marched directly to Rome, and laid siege to the city. This war is signalized by the daring intrepidity of Hora'tius Coc'les, who alone resisted the whole force of the enemy at the head of a bridge which led across the Tiber, and also by that of Mutius Scæv'ola, who entered the enemy's camp with a design to assassinate Porsenna, but, mistaking the monarch, killed the secretary, who sat by his side. On Porsenna's demanding who he was, Mutius, without reserve, informed him of his country and his design, and by way of punishment of the hand which had missed its aim, he thrust it into the fire which was burning upon the altar before him. Porsenna, admiring this noble intrepidity, offered conditions of peace to the Romans on honorable terms.

5. Having induced the Latins to enlist in his cause, Tarquin for a third time approached the city with his army. But while a public enemy threatened them from without, domestic disorders prevailed within the walls of the city. The plebeians, who were poor and oppressed with debt, refused to aid in repelling the enemy unless their debts were remitted on their return, and as the Valerian law gave to any condemned citizen the right of appealing to the people, the consuls found their authority of no avail.

6. In this emergency an extraordinary measure was necessary. There was created a new magistrate, who should continue in office only as long as the danger of the state required, and whose power was absolute, not only over all ranks of the state, but even over the very laws, with which he could dispense in cases of public exigency, without consulting the senate or the people. Titus Largius, one of the Consuls, being elevated to the new office of Dictator, collected an army, and having restored tranquillity to the state, re-

What had the Romans to lament?—4. In the meantime what did Tarquin do? By what is this war signalized? What is related of Horatius and Mutius?—5. What is said of Tarquin? What did the plebeians refuse?—6. What new magistrate was created? What was his power? Who was the first dictator?

signed the dictatorship before the expiration of six months, with the reputation of having exercised it with justice and moderation.

Shortly after this event, war again was excited by the Tarquins; in this emergency, Posthu'mius was appointed Dictator; the Romans were completely victorious, and the sons of Tarquin were slain.

7. On the return of peace, Rome was again disturbed by domestic dissensions; the dispute between the creditors and debtors was renewed. The plebeians, despairing of being able to effect a redress of their grievances in Rome, resolved to move and form a new establishment without its limits. Accordingly, under the conduct of a plebeian, called Licin'ius Bellu'tus, they retired to a mountain called Mons Sacer, on the banks of the river Anio, about three miles from Rome.

8. At the news of this defection the senate became alarmed, and immediately deputed ten of the most respectable of their body with authority to grant redress. Mene'nius Agrip'pa, one of the ten commissioners, eminent for his virtue and wisdom, is said to have effected a reconciliation by relating the celebrated fable of the disagreement between the stomach and the other members of the human body. The application of the fable was so obvious, that the people unanimously demanded that Agrippa should lead them back to Rome. Before their departure, however, it was proposed by Lucius Junius that for their future security a new order of magistrates should be created, who should have the power of annulling, by a single vote, any measure which they should deem prejudicial to the interests of the people. Those magistrates, called Tribunes, were annually elected; their number, which at first was five, afterwards increased to ten. By this measure the aristocracy was restrained and the fury of the populace checked. At the same time were appointed two magistrates, styled Ædiles, whose duty it was to assist the Tribunes and take charge of the public buildings.

9. During the late separation agriculture had been neglected; the consequence was a famine during the following

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What was the fate of the sons of Tarquin?—7. What dispute was again renewed? What did the plebeians resolve to do?—8. At the news of this defection what did the senate do? What is related of Agrippa? For their future security what was done? What were these magistrates called? At the same time what other two magistrates were appointed?—9. During the separation what was neglected? What followed?

season; but the timely arrival of a large quantity of corn from Sicily prevented many of the evils that were likely to ensue. At this time the resentment of the people was strongly excited against Coriola'nus, who insisted that the corn should not be distributed until the grievances of the senate were removed; for this proposition he was summoned by the Tribunes to a trial before the people, and was condemned to perpetual banishment. He retired to the Volsci, and being appointed to the command of their army, invaded the Roman territories and carried his devastations to the very walls of the city; but he was at length prevailed upon, by the earnest entreaties of his mother and his wife, to withdraw his forces.

10. The proposal of the Agra'rian law, which had for its object the division of the land obtained by conquest equally among the people, proved a source of discord between the plebeians and patricians; for, while the former repeatedly urged the measure, the latter as often strenuously opposed the design. The state was, in consequence, thrown into violent dissensions. Through the influence of the tribune, Vol'ero Publilius, a law was passed that the election of the tribunes should be made in the comitia, or public meetings of the people. By this law the supreme authority was taken from the patricians and placed in the hands of the plebeians, and the Roman government became a democracy.

11. During the dissensions which grew out of the proposition for the Agrarian law, Quinc'tius Cincinnat'us, a man eminent for his wisdom and virtue, and who had retired from public life, was created Dictator; but scarcely had he restored tranquillity to the state and resigned his office, when new dangers obliged him a second time to resume it. The Æqui, having invaded the territory of the Romans, enclosed the army of the Consul Minutius, who had been sent to oppose them, in a defile between two mountains, from which there was no egress. Cincinna'tus, having raised another army, placed himself at its head, and having defeated the Æqui, and rescued the army of the Consul from its perilous situation, returned in triumph to the city, and, after holding the high office of Dictator for the space of only fourteen days, he resigned its honors and again retired to labor on his farm.

Against whom was the resentment of the people excited? To what was he sentenced? Where did he retire? What is related of him?—10. What was a source of discord between the plebeians and patricians? What law was passed? What was the nature of this law?—11. Who at this time was created dictator? What is said of Cincinnatus?

12. Previous to this period the Romans had not possessed any body of written laws. Under the regal government the monarchs administered justice, and the Consuls who succeeded them exercised the same authority. But their arbitrary decisions were frequently the subject of complaint, and all ranks of the citizens became desirous of having a fixed code of laws for the security of their rights. Three commissioners were accordingly sent to collect, from the most civilized states of Greece and Italy, such laws as were deemed useful in forming a suitable code.

13. On the return of the commissioners, ten of the principal senators, called Decemvirs, were appointed to digest a body of laws, and were invested with absolute power for one year. This gave rise to those celebrated statutes, distinguished by the name of the Laws of the Twelve Tables, which formed the basis of Roman jurisprudence, and continued to be held in the greatest esteem during the most flourishing period of the republic. Those laws manifest the stern spirit of the people, and were marked by great severity. Nine crimes were punishable with death, one of which was parricide; but, to the honor of the Romans, it may be observed that this crime was unknown among them for more than five hundred years after the foundation of the city.

14. The Decemvirs, during the first year of their power, governed with equity and moderation, each in his turn presided for a day, and exercised the sovereign authority. At the expiration of the term for which they were appointed, under a pretence that some laws were yet wanting to complete the code, they entreated the senate to allow them further time, for, having experienced the charms of power, they were unwilling to retire. Soon they threw off the mask of moderation, and, regardless of the approbation either of the senate or the people, resolved to continue in decemvirate. A conduct so notorious produced general discontent, and their flagrant abuse of power brought a speedy termination of their office.

15. While the army was encamped about ten miles from Rome, during a war with the Sabines and Volsci, Ap'pius, one of the leading members of the decemvirate, who remained in the city, appointed as legate Licin'ius Denta'tus,

12. What had the Romans never possessed? For what were the commissioners sent to Greece?—13. On their return what was done? To what did it give rise? What do these laws manifest? How many crimes were punishable with death?—14. What is said of the decemvirs? What did they entreat? What did they throw off?—15. What is related of Appius?

a tribune, who, on account of his extraordinary valor and exploits, was called the Roman Achilles, and put him at the head of the supplies which were sent to reinforce the army in the field. On his arrival in the camp he was appointed at the head of a hundred men, to discover a more commodious place for encampment, as he had very candidly assured the commanders that their present situation was badly chosen. The soldiers, however, who composed his escort, were assassins, and had engaged to murder him. With this view they led him into the hollow of a mountain, where they intended to put into execution their design. Dentatus now perceived, when too late, the treachery of the Decemvirs, but resolving to sell his life as dearly as possible, he put his back against a rock, and defended himself with such bravery that he killed no less than fifteen, and wounded thirty of his assailants before they were able to accomplish their design.

16. In the army sent against the Æquians there was a well-known centurion named Virginius. He had a beautiful daughter, Virginia, who went daily with her nurse to a school near the forum. Ap'pius, the decemvir, as he sat there to administer justice, noticed the maiden, and sought in her father's absence to get her into his power. He directed a profligate dependent to seize the girl in the street, and claim her as his slave. The cry of the nurse for help brought a crowd around them, and all went before the decemvir. In his presence, Marcus repeated the tale he had learned, asserting that Virginia was the child of one of his female slaves, and had been imposed upon Virginius by his wife. This he offered to prove to Virginius so soon as the latter returned to Rome, and he meanwhile demanded the custody of the maiden. The attitude of the people was so menacing that Appius was forced to defer judgment till next morning; but he declared that then, whether Virginius appeared or not, he should know how to maintain the law. Straightway two friends of the family hurried to the camp, and informed Virginius of his daughter's situation. He at once obtained a leave of absence, and fortunately had already set out for Rome, when a messenger arrived from Appius requesting that he should be detained with the army. Early next morning, Virginius and his daughter came into the forum

What were the soldiers who formed the escort of Dentatus? How many did he kill and wound?—16. What other transaction is related of Appius? What did he direct? What followed? In the meantime what did Virginius do?

with their garments rent. Supported by his friends, he appealed to the law and to testimony. But, intent upon his purpose, Appius ordered Virginia to be given up to his accomplice, at the same time commanding his lictors and a large body of his adherents, whom he had summoned around him, to disperse the people. The unhappy father, seeing no means to deliver his daughter, snatched a knife from a butcher's stall close by, and stabbed her to the heart. Brandishing the reeking weapon, he rushed to the gate of the city, and then hurried to the camp. Ap'pius and Op'pius died by their own hands in prison; their colleagues were driven into exile, and the Decemvirate was abolished, after it had continued for three years. The Consuls were again restored.

18. Unfortunately for Rome, there always remained some cause for internal dissensions. By an early law of the state, plebeians were forbidden to intermarry with the patricians, and the office of Consul was limited to the latter. After a long contest, the law prohibiting intermarriage was repealed. This concession, it was hoped, would satisfy the people, but it only stimulated them to urge their claim to be admitted to a share in the consulship; and on the occurrence of war, they refused to enroll their names unless their demand was granted. At length it was agreed on both sides that, instead of the Consuls, six military tribunes should be chosen, three from the patricians and three from the plebeians. But this institution was soon cast aside, and the Consuls were again restored.

19. The Consuls being thus restored, in order to lighten the weight of their duties there were created two new magistrates, styled Censors, to be chosen every fifth year. Their duty was to estimate the number and the estates of the people, to distribute them into their proper classes, to inspect the morals and manners of their fellow-citizens. The office was one of great dignity and importance, and was exercised for nearly one hundred years by the patricians, afterwards by men of consular dignity, and finally by the Emperors.

20. The senate, in order to avoid the evils which frequently arose from the people's refusing to enlist in the army, adopted the wise expedient of giving a regular pay to

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What did Appius order? What did Virginius then do? What was the fate of Appius and Oppius?—18. By a law of the state, what were the plebeians prohibited? What was done after a long contest? At length, what was agreed on both sides?—19. What two new magistrates were now created? What was their duty?—20. What wise expedient did the senate adopt?

the troops. From this period, the Roman system of war assumed a new aspect. The senate had the army under its immediate control; the enterprises of the republic were more extensive, and its success more signal and important. As the art of war now became a profession, instead of an occasional employment, it was in consequence greatly improved, and from this period the Roman territory began rapidly to extend.

21. The inhabitants of the city of Veii had repeatedly committed depredations on the Roman territories. It was at length decreed by the Roman senate that Veii should be destroyed, whatever it might cost. Accordingly, a siege was commenced, which continued with varied success for ten years. At length, in order to give greater vigor to the operations, Camil'lus was created Dictator, and to him was entrusted the sole management of the long protracted war. He caused a passage to be opened under ground, which led into the very citadel, and giving his men directions how to enter the breach, the city was taken and destroyed. Camillus was honored with a splendid triumph, in which his chariot was drawn four white horses; but being afterwards accused of having appropriated a part of the plunder of Veii to his own use, indignant at the ingratitude of his countrymen, he went into voluntary exile.

22. It was not long before the Romans had cause to repent of their injustice towards the only man who was able to save their country from ruin.

The Gauls, a barbarous and warlike people having crossed the Alps into the northern part of Italy, under Bren'nus, their king, laid siege to Clusium, a city of Etruria. The inhabitants of Clusium having applied for assistance to the Romans, the senate sent three patricians of the Fabian family on an embassy to Brennus, to inquire into the cause of offence given by the citizens of Clusium. To this he sternly replied, that "the right of valiant men lay in their swords; that the Romans themselves had no other right to the cities they had conquered." The ambassadors, on entering the city, assisted the inhabitants against the assailants. This conduct so incensed Brennus that he immediately raised the siege of Clusium, and marched directly for Rome, and in a

What were the consequences of this measure?—21. What was at length decreed? Who was created dictator? What did he cause? How was he honored? Of what was he accused?—22. What is said of the Gauls? What reply did Brennus make to the embassy sent by the Romans? What did one of the ambassadors do? How did Brennus resent this conduct?

great battle on the banks of the Allia defeated the Roman army with immense slaughter.

23. After this victory the Gauls entered Rome, put to the sword all the inhabitants that fell in their way, pillaged the city, and then burnt it to ashes. They next laid siege to the capitol, which the Romans defended with the utmost bravery. At length, having discovered a way which led to the top of the Tarpeian Rock, a body of Gauls undertook the difficult task of gaining the summit under the cover of the night, and even succeeded in accomplishing their design, while the Roman sentinel was asleep. At this moment the gabbling of some sacred geese in the temple of Juno roused the garrison, and, through the exertions of Marius Manlius, the Gauls were instantly thrown headlong down the precipice.

24. As the Gauls now gave up all hope of being able to reduce the capitol, they agreed to quit the city on condition that the Romans would pay them one thousand pounds' weight of gold; but, after the gold was brought forth, the Gauls endeavored, by fraudulent weights, to impose upon the Romans; and when the latter offered to complain, Brennus, casting his sword and belt into the scale, replied, that it was the only portion of the vanquished to suffer. At this moment Camillus, who in the meantime had been restored to favor and again appointed Dictator, entered the gates of the city at the head of a large army. Having been informed of the insolence of the enemy, he ordered the gold to be carried back to the capitol, saying that it had been the manner of the Romans to ransom their country by steel, and not by gold. A battle followed, in which the Gauls were entirely routed, and the Roman territories delivered from those formidable invaders.

25. After the defeat of the Gauls, through the exertions of Camillus, who was honored as the father of his country and the second founder of Rome, the city soon began again to rise from its ashes. Shortly after this, Manlius, whose patriotism and valor had shone so conspicuous in defending the capitol and saving the last remains of Rome, abandoned himself to ambitious views; and, being accused of aspiring

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23. On entering Rome, what did the Gauls do? Having discovered a way to the Tarpeian Rock, what did the Gauls do? How was the garrison roused?—24. To what did the Gauls agree? At this moment who appeared at the gates of the city? What did he order? What ensued?—25. After the defeat of the Gauls, what took place? What is related of Manlius?

to the sovereign power, he was sentenced to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian Rock. Thus the place which had been the theatre of his glory became that of his punishment and infamy.

26. The Romans next turned their arms against the Samnites, who inhabited an extensive tract of country in the south of Italy. During this contest, which lasted for thirty-seven years, the Romans were generally successful, with the exception of a defeat sustained near Caudium, when their whole army was compelled to pass under the yoke, formed by two spears placed upright and a third placed across them. But, roused by this defeat rather than discouraged, the Romans, the following year, having created Papir'ius Cur'sor Dictator, gained a signal victory over the Samnites, and compelled them in turn to undergo the same disgrace; and, pursuing their good fortunte under Fabius Maximus and Decius, finally brought them under subjection.

27. Shortly afterwards a war followed between the Romans and Latins; but as their clothing, arms, and language were similar, the most exact discipline was necessary in order to prevent confusion in the contest. Orders were therefore issued by Manlius, the Consul, that no soldier should leave his ranks under the penalty of death. When the armies were drawn out in order of battle, Metius, a Latin, challenged to single combat any one of the Roman knights. Upon this Titus Manlius, the son of the Consul, forgetful of the orders of his father, accepted the challenge, and slew his adversary. Then taking the spoils of the enemy, he hastened to lay them at the feet of the Consul, who, with tears in his eyes, said that as he had violated military discipline, he had reduced his father to the deplorable extremity of sacrificing his son or his country, but added, that a thousand lives would be well lost in such a cause; and accordingly ordered him to be beheaded. In the meantime the battle followed, in which the Latins were vanquished and submitted to the Romans.

28. The Tarentines, who were the allies of the Samnites, being unable to defend themselves, applied for aid to Pyr'rhus, king of Epi'rus, the most celebrated general of his age.

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26. Against whom did the Romans next turn their arms? Where did they suffer a defeat? Who was created dictator?—27. What war next followed? What orders were issued by Manlius? What is related of Titus, his son?—28. To whom did the Tarentines apply for aid?

Liger R. or Loire R.
Rhodanus or Rhone R.
ALPS
Varus R.
Rubicon R.
Ister or Danube R.
EUXINE SEA
Pyrenees
Durius or Duro
Numantia
SPAIN
Tagus R.
Toledo
Anas R.
Saguntum
Valentia
Rome
Capua
Nola
Cannæ
MACEDON
BITHYNIA
ASIA MINOR
Pydna
Messana
Sicily
Syracuse
Carthage
Sparta
Corinth
Magnesia
Sardis
SYRIA
Palmyra
Zama
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Tyre
Pelusium
EGYPT
Nile R.
RED SEA
ROME
B.C. 264 - B.C. 146.
100 200 300 400 500
Scale of Miles
CHAPTER III

Having accepted the invitation, Pyrrhus immediately sailed for Taren'tum with an army of thirty thousand men and twenty elephants. The Consul, Lavinus, hastened to oppose him. The Romans, unaccustomed to the mode of fighting with elephants, were defeated with the loss of fifteen thousand men; but the loss on the side of the Grecian monarch was nearly the same, and he was heard to say that another such victory would compel him to abandon his enterprise. Struck with admiration at the heroism of the enemy, he exclaimed, "Oh, with what ease could I conquer the world had I the Romans for soldiers, or had they me for their king."

29. The conduct of Fabric'ius, the Roman general, during this war, claims universal admiration. On one occasion, having received a letter from the physician of Pyrrhus, importing that for a proper reward he would poison the king, the noble Roman, indignant at so base a proposal, gave immediate information of it to Pyrrhus, who, admiring the generosity of his enemy, exclaimed, "It is easier to turn the sun from its course than Fabricius from the path of honor." Pyrrhus, after suffering a total defeat near Beneventum, withdrew to his own dominions, and the Romans, shortly after his departure, became masters of all the southern part of Italy.

CHAPTER III

FROM THE FIRST PU'NIC WAR TO THE CONQUEST OF GREECE.—B. C. 264 TO 146.

AS the history of Rome now becomes connected with that of Carthage and Sicily, it may not be improper to introduce here a short account of those states. Carthage is said to have been founded about nine hundred years before the Christian era by Di'do, with a colony of Tyrians. The government was at first monarchical, but afterwards became republican. It is highly commended by Aristotle as one of the most perfect of antiquity, but, according to the same author, it had two great defects: the first was the legal

Who was sent to oppose him? What was the issue of the battle? What did Pyrrhus exclaim?—29. What is related of Fabricius? What did Pyrrhus say of him?

CHAPTER III.—1. What is said of Carthage? Of the government?

capacity of the same person to hold different public employments; and the second was that which required a certain income before a man could attain to any important office, by which means poverty might exclude a person of the most exalted merit from holding a civil employment.

2. The supreme power was placed in the senate; there were annually elected two magistrates, called Seffetes, whose authority in Carthage answered to that of the consuls at Rome. Commerce was the chief occupation of the Carthagin'-ians; to this they were indebted for their wealth and power. Their religion was a degrading superstition; the cruel practise of offering human victims was exercised among them. At the time of the Punic wars the city of Carthage had risen greatly in wealth and commercial importance, surpassing any other city in the world. It had under its dominion a number of towns in Africa, bordering on the Mediterranean, besides a great part of Spain, Sicily, and other islands.

3. From Egypt the Carthaginians brought flax, paper, corn, etc.; from the coast of the Red Sea, spices, perfumes, gold, pearls, and precious stones; from Tyre and Phœnicia, purple, scarlet, and the like: in a word, they brought from various countries all things that contribute not only to the convenience, but even to the luxury and pleasures of life. They are represented as having been greatly lacking in honor and integrity. Cunning, duplicity, and want of faith seem to have been distinguishing features in their character; hence the phrase—*Pu'nica Fi'des*—Punic Faith, was used to denote treachery.

4. The Carthaginians seem never to have excelled as a literary people; there were among them, however, several distinguished scholars. The great Han'nibal, who in all respects was the ornament of Carthage, was not unacquainted with polite literature. Ma'go, another celebrated general, wrote twenty-eight volumes on husbandry; these were afterwards much esteemed by the Romans. There is extant a Greek version of an account written by Hanno, relating to his voyage round Africa with a considerable fleet for the settling of different colonies. Clito'machus, called in the

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What were its defects?—2. In what was the power placed? What were the magistrates called? What is said of religion? Of Carthage, at the time of the Punic wars?—3. What did the Carthaginians bring from Egypt? From Tyre? How are they represented?—4. Did they ever excel as a literary people? What is said of Hannibal? Of Mago? What is still extant?

Punic tongue As'drubal, was a great philosopher. Carthage produced several eminent generals, among whom Hamil'car, Asdrubal, and Hannibal were the most distinguished.

5. Sicily is said to have been settled previous to the Trojan war by a colony of Phœnicians, but the Greeks at a later period made settlements on the island. It contained many large and populous cities; of these Syracuse, the most populous, excelled in commerce. This city, at an early period, was under a democratical form of government, which in the course of time was overthrown, and a monarchy established in its stead. Gelon, one of its sovereigns, is represented as possessing every virtue; but the tyranny and cruelty of his successors caused a revolution in the state, and the regal government was abolished. After a period of sixty years it was restored by Diony'sius, a man of great abilities; but his son, Dionysius the younger, a weak and capricious tyrant, was dethroned by the aid of Timo'leon, an illustrious Greek, and banished to Corinth, where he ended his life in poverty.

6. Being anxious to extend their conquests, the Romans soon found an opportunity of indulging their design. The Mamertines, a people of Campania, obtained assistance from the Romans in a war with Hie'ro, king of Syracuse; the Carthaginians, in their turn, assisted the Syracusans; a terrible struggle, called the first Pu'nic war, was thus brought on between the former and the Romans. The first object of both powers was to obtain possession of Messi'na, a city which commanded the passage of the straits, but it finally became a contest for the dominion of the whole island.

7. But there seemed an insurmountable obstacle to the ambition of Rome. She had no fleet, and Carthage was sovereign of the sea. The Romans, however, resolved to overcome every obstacle that lay in their way to conquest. A Carthaginian vessel, which happened in a storm to be driven on the coast, served as a model; and in the short space of two months, a fleet consisting of one hundred vessels was constructed and ready for use. The consul Duillius was appointed to the command of the armament, and though much inferior to the enemy in the management of his fleet,

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What did Carthage produce?—5. What is said of Sicily? What did it contain? What is said of Gelon? What was the fate of Dionysius the younger?—6. What occasioned the first Punic war? What was the object of both powers?—7. What was any obstacle to the ambition of Rome? How did the Romans surmount the difficulty? Who was appointed to command the fleet?

yet he gained the first naval victory, defeated the Carthaginians, and took fifty of their vessels.

8. At the commencement of the war, the Syracusans, who were allies of the Carthaginians, changed their policy and joined the Romans. The Carthaginians, however, after a long siege, took the city of Agrigen'tum. A second naval engagement soon afterwards took place, in which the Romans were again victorious; the Carthaginians, under Hanno and Hamilcar, lost sixty of their vessels. The consul, Reg'ulus, in the meantime, was sent by the senate to carry the war into Africa; and having landed on the coast, defeated the Carthaginians, and carried his victorious arms to the very walls of their capital. But here his good fortune seemed to forsake him; he was signally defeated by the Carthaginians under the command of Xanthip'pus, a Spartan general, and fell into the hands of the enemy.

9. The Carthaginians, weary of continuing the war, became desirous of treating for peace, and with this view they sent ambassadors to Rome, and among their number was Regulus, who had now been detained four years a prisoner. They previously exacted a promise, on oath, that he would return to Carthage if the negotiation should fail. But Regulus, not deeming the terms of peace sufficiently advantageous to his country, strenuously opposed their acceptance, and returned to Carthage, where, after the most cruel tortures, he was finally put to death, by being placed in a barrel driven full of nails, pointing inwards. In this painful situation he continued until he died.

10. The war was now renewed on both sides with more than former animosity; but at length the perseverance of the Romans was crowned with success. Peace was granted to the Carthaginians on the most humiliating conditions. It was agreed that they should abandon Sicily, pay the Romans thirty-two hundred talents, and release their captives. Thus terminated the first Punic war, after it had lasted twenty-four years. Sicily was now declared a Roman province, but Syracuse still maintained its independent government. After this war the Romans completed the conquest of Cisalpine Gaul;

What was the issue of the engagement?—8. What is said of the Syracusans? What was the result of the second naval engagement? What is related of Regulus?—9. Whom did the Carthaginians send to Rome to negotiate a peace? What did Regulus do? How was he put to death?—10. On what conditions was peace granted to the Carthaginians? After the conquest of Cisalpine Gaul what did the Romans do?

and being at peace with all mankind, they closed the temple of Janus for the first time since the reign of Numa.

11. The Carthaginians had made peace only because they were no longer able to continue the war; they therefore took the earliest opportunity of breaking the treaty. They besieged Sagun'tum, a city in Spain, then in alliance with Rome; and although requested to desist, they refused to comply. This refusal led to the second Punic war. To Han'nibal, the son of Hamilcar, the Carthaginians intrusted the command of their army. This extraordinary man, whilst very young, was brought before the altar and made to take an oath that he never would be in friendship with the Romans, nor desist from opposing their power until he or they should be no more. Being raised to the chief command of the forces of his country, though only in the twenty-sixth year of his age, he formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy, as the Romans had before carried it into the dominions of Carthage.

12. For this purpose, leaving Hanno to guard his conquest in Spain, he crossed the Pyrennes, entered Gaul, and with an army of fifty thousand foot and nine thousand horse, in a short time appeared at the foot of the Alps. It was in the midst of winter. The prodigious height of the mountains, their steepness, and snow-covered summits presented a picture that might have discouraged any ordinary individual. But nothing could subdue the resolution of the Carthaginian general. At the end of fifteen days he effected the passage of the Alps, and found himself on the plains of Italy—but with only half of his numerous army.

13. Scarcely had he arrived in Italy when the Romans hastened to oppose his progress. But Hannibal gained four memorable victories,—the first, over Scip'io near Ticin'us; the second, over Sempro'nius, the consul, in which twenty-six thousand Romans were destroyed; the third, near Lake Thrasyme'ne over Flaminius; and the fourth at Can'næ, over Æmil'ius and Varro. The last was the most memorable defeat that the Romans ever sustained. More than forty thousand of their troops were left dead upon the field, together with the consul Æmilius. Among the slain were so

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11. What led to the second Punic war? To whom did the Carthaginians intrust the command of their army? What is said of him whilst young? What bold design did he form?—12. Leaving Hanno in Spain what did Hannibal do? How many days did he occupy in crossing the Alps?—13. What four memorable victories did he now gain? What is said of the last?

many Roman knights, that Hannibal is said to have sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings, which they wore on their fingers. Hannibal, however, either finding it impracticable to march directly to Rome, or wishing to give his forces rest after so signal a victory, led them to Capua, where he resolved to spend the winter.

14. The chief command of the Roman forces was now given to Fabius Maximus, styled the Shield, and to Marcellus, the Sword, of Rome. After the battle of Can'næ, the good fortune of the Carthaginian general seemed to forsake him. At the siege of Nola he was repulsed with considerable loss by Marcellus, and his army was harassed and weakened by Fabius. Marcellus took the city of Syracuse after a siege of three years, during which time it was chiefly defended by the genius of the celebrated Archime'des. The inhabitants were put to the sword, and among them Archimedes himself, who was found by a Roman soldier engaged in his study.

15. A large army of Carthaginians, sent from Spain into Italy, under the command of Asdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, was defeated, and their general slain by the Romans, under the command of the consuls, Livy and Nero. The very night on which Hannibal was assured of the arrival of his brother, Asdrubal's head was cut off and thrown into the camp. Scipio, the younger, surnamed Africanus, after his return from the conquest of Spain, was made consul at the early age of twenty-nine; but instead of opposing Hannibal in Italy, formed a wiser plan, which was to carry the war into Africa. On his arrival at the walls of their capital, the Carthaginians, alarmed for the fate of their empire, immediately recalled Hannibal from Italy. When the order came, the great commander hastened to return to his native country, after having kept possession of the most beautiful parts of Italy for about fifteen years.

16. Having arrived in Africa, he marched to Adrime'tum, and finally, upon the plains of Za'ma, he was met by Scipio at the head of the Roman army; after a fruitless attempt to negotiate a peace, a tremendous battle was fought, in which

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How many rings did he send to Carthage?—14. To whom was the command of the Roman forces now given? What were they styled? By whom was the city of Syracuse defended? What was his fate?—15. What is said of the Carthaginian army? What plan did Scipio, the younger, form? On his arrival what did the Carthaginians do? How long had he remained in Italy?—16. Where was he met by Scipio?

the Carthaginians were totally defeated, with the loss of twenty thousand of their troops, which were left dead upon the field, and as many more taken prisoners. This victory was followed by a peace, on condition that Carthage should abandon Spain, Sicily, and all the islands in the Mediterranean, surrender all her prisoners, give up her whole fleet, except ten galleys, and in future undertake no war without the consent of the Romans. To these hard terms the Carthaginians were compelled to subscribe. Thus terminated the second Punic war, after having lasted seventeen years.

17. Hannibal, after this event, passed the last thirteen years of his life in exile from his native country, and finally took refuge in the court of Pru'sias, king of Bith'ynia. The Romans, who were bent on his destruction, sent Æmilius, one of their most celebrated generals, to demand him from this king, who, fearing the resentment of Rome, determined to deliver up his guest. The great but unfortunate general, in order to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, destroyed himself by poison.

18. While the Romans were engaged in hostilities with the Carthaginians, they also carried on against Philip, king of Macedo'nia, a vigorous war, which finally terminated in favor of Rome. After this they turned their arms against Anti'ochus the Great, king of Syria, who was defeated by Scipio, surnamed Asiaticus, in the great battle of Magne'sia. A second war followed with Macedonia, which terminated in the defeat at the battle of Pydna of Perse'us, the last king of that country; after this Macedonia was reduced to a Roman province.

19. About this time, Masinissa, the Numidian, made incursions into a territory claimed by the Carthaginians, who attempted to repel the invasion. The Romans, regarding this as a violation of their treaty, laid hold of it as a pretext for commencing the third Punic war, with a determination not to desist until the city of Carthage should be destroyed. Porcius Cato, one of the most prominent members of the senate, strongly insisted on this measure, and usually concluded his speeches in these words:—*Delenda est Carthago*—Carthage must be destroyed.

What was the issue of the battle? What were the conditions of the peace?—17. Where did Hannibal finally take refuge? How did he die?—18. What other war did the Romans carry on at this time? Against whom did they next turn their arms? What happened after the battle of Pydna?—19. What led to the third Punic war? How did Cato usually conclude his speeches?

The Carthaginians, conscious of the superior power of the Romans, endeavored by every species of submission to avert the impending ruin of their country. They yielded to the Romans their ships, their arms, and munitions of war; but they were still required to abandon their capital, that it might be levelled to the ground.

20. This demand was received with mingled feelings of sorrow and despair; and, finding no alternative, the wretched Carthaginians resolved to suffer the utmost extremities in order to save the seat of their empire. The vessels of gold and silver which adorned their luxurious banquets were now converted into arms; even the women parted with their ornaments, and cut off their hair to be made into bow-strings. After a desperate resistance for three years, the city was taken by Scipio, also called Africanus, and destroyed. Thus was Carthage, one of the most renowned cities of antiquity, with its walls and temples, razed to its foundation. Such of the inhabitants as refused to surrender themselves prisoners of war either fell by the sword or perished in the ruins of their capital. The scenes of horror presented on the occasion, it is said, forced tears from the eyes of even the Roman general.

21. The destruction of Carthage was succeeded by the conquest of several other states. Corinth was taken and destroyed by the Consul Mummius, and Greece reduced to a Roman province. Scipio having laid siege to Numantia, a city in Spain, the inhabitants, to avoid falling into the hands of the enemy, set fire to the town and perished in the flames. After this event, Spain fell under the dominion of Rome.

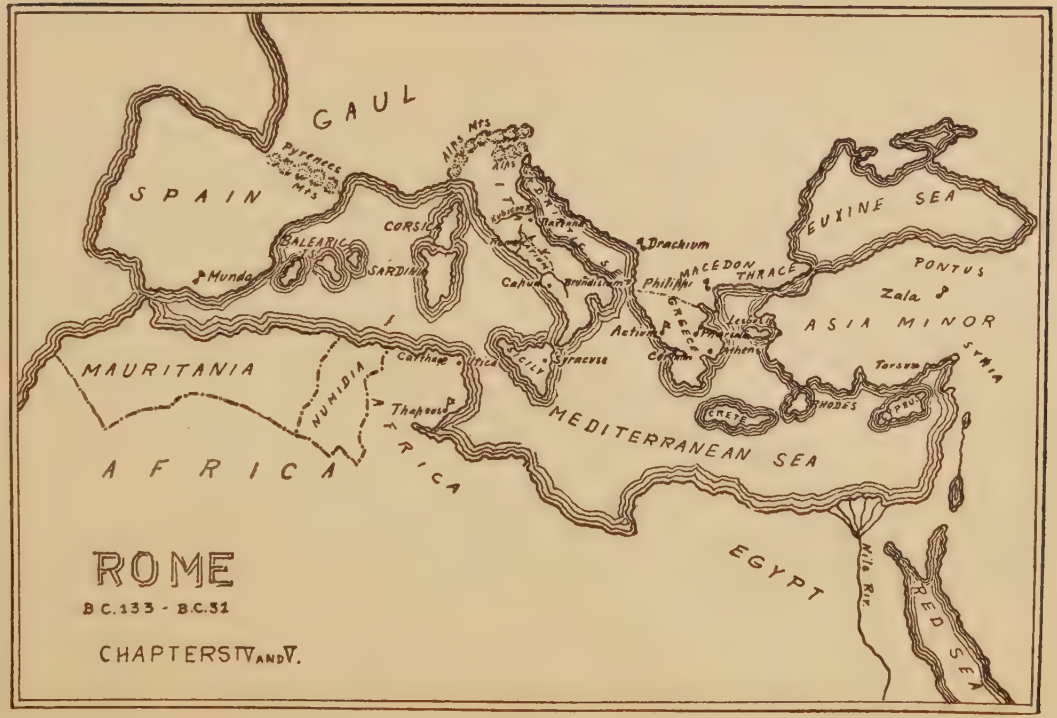
CHAPTER IV

THE SEDITION OF THE GRAC'CHI; CIVIL WARS; CONSPIRACY OF CAT'ILINE.—B. C. 133 TO 63.

THE Romans, who had long been distinguished for temperance and military enterprise, were not as yet a literary people. Among them the arts and sciences had been but

What did the Carthaginians do?—20. How was this demand received? What did they make of their vessels of gold and silver? How long did the siege last? What is said of the scene?—21. By what was the reduction of Carthage succeeded? What is related of the inhabitants of Numantia?

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the Romans?


GAUL
SPAIN
Pyrenees Mts
Alps Mts
ITALY
Rome
Brundisium
Drachium
EUXINE SEA
PONTUS
Zela
MACEDON
THRACE
Philippi
CORSICA
BALEARIC
Mundo
SARDINIA
Cahuda
GREECE
Actium
Corinth
Athens
ASIA MINOR
SYRIA
Tarsus
MAURITANIA
NUMIDIA
Carthage
Utica
Thapsus
SICILY
Syracuse
RHODES
CYPRUS
CRETE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
EGYPT
Nile Riv.
RED SEA
ROME
B.C. 133 - B.C. 31
CHAPTERS IV AND V.

little cultivated. After the conquest of Greece, a favorable change took place; and with the luxury of that nation was introduced at Rome a taste for literature. But as they grew in power, luxury and a corruption of manners began to prevail. By the destruction of Carthage, Rome was left without a rival. Her arms were everywhere successful.

2. When she had triumphed, however, over all her enemies abroad, domestic dissensions began to prevail. Tibe'rius and Ca'ius Grac'chus, men of eloquence and influence, distinguished themselves by declaiming against the corruptions which began to prevail among the great, and by asserting the claims of the people. Tiberius, the elder of the two brothers, while tribune, with a view of checking the power of the patricians, and abridging their immense estates, endeavored to revive the Licin'ian law, which ordained that no citizen should possess more than five hundred acres of public land. In consequence of this proposal a tumult followed, in which Tiberius, together with three hundred of his friends, was slain in the streets of Rome by the partisans of the senate.

3. When this tragical event took place, Caius Gracchus, in the twenty-first year of his age, was yet in retirement, engaged in the quiet pursuit of study. The fatal example of his brother did not deter him from following a similar career. Having been elected to the tribuneship, he procured an edict granting the freedom of the city to the inhabitants of Latium, and afterwards to all the people on that side of the Alps; he also procured that the price of corn should be fixed at a moderate rate, and a monthly distribution of it among the people. He then proceeded to an investigation of the late corruptions of the senate, and that whole body were convicted of bribery, extortion, and the sales of offices. These measures did not fail to enkindle the resentment of the senate. Gracchus was marked out for destruction, and finally he fell a victim to their vengeance, with three thousand of his partisans, who were slaughtered in the streets of Rome by the Consul Opim'ius.

4. Jugur'tha, the grandson of the famous Masinissa, attempted to usurp the throne of Numid'ia, by destroying his

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After the conquest of Greece, what took place?—2. What now began to prevail? What did Tiberius Gracchus endeavor to revive? In consequence of this, what followed?—3. Having been elected to the tribuneship, what did Caius Gracchus procure? What did he then proceed to do? What was the consequence of these measures?—4. What is said of Jugurtha?

cousins, Hiem'psal and Adher'bal, the sons of the late king, Micip'sa. The elder fell a victim to his treachery, but Adherbal, the younger, having escaped, applied for assistance to the senate of Rome; but that body being bribed by Jugurtha, divided the kingdom between the two. Jugurtha having invaded the territories of Adherbal, defeated and slew him in battle, then seized upon his whole kingdom; but by this act he drew upon himself the resentment of Rome. War having been declared against him, the command of the army was at first confided to Metellus, but when on the point of gaining a complete triumph over the king of Numidia, he was supplanted in the command by the intrigues of Caius Ma'rius, who had the honor of terminating the war. Jugurtha was defeated and taken prisoner, and led to Rome in chains, and, having adorned the triumph of the conqueror, was cast into prison and starved to death.

5. About this period the Roman republic was again convulsed by domestic dissensions. The Italian states being frustrated in their aims of gaining the freedom of Rome, by the intrigues of the senate, resolved to gain by force what they could not obtain as a favor. This gave rise to the Social war, which continued to rage for several years, and is said to have involved the destruction of three hundred thousand men. It was finally terminated by granting the rights of citizenship to all who should lay down their arms and return to their allegiance.

6. This destructive war being concluded, the Romans next turned their arms against Mithrida'tes, king of Pon'tus, the most powerful monarch of the East, who caused eighty thousand Romans, dwelling in the cities of Asia Minor, to be massacred in one day. In this celebrated contest, styled the Mithridatic war, the Roman generals, Syl'la, Lucul'lus, and Pom'pey, successively bore a distinguished part. The chief command in the war against Mithridates was first given to Sylla, a man of great talents and an able general; but Ma'rius, who had been distinguished for his warlike genius and exploits for nearly half a century, now in the seventieth year of his age, had the address to get the command of the army transferred from Sylla to himself.

Who fell a victim to his treachery? How long did he incur the resentment of Rome? What was his fate?—5. What is said of the Italian states? What did this give rise to? How was it terminated?—6. Against whom did the Romans next turn their arms? What generals took part in the Mithridatic war? What is said of Marius?

7. Sylla, on receiving this intelligence, and finding his troops devoted to his interest, marched directly to Rome, which he entered as if taking the place by storm, and proceeding to the senate, compelled that body to issue a decree declaring Marius a public enemy. Marius, in the meantime, fled to Africa, and Sylla, after some delay, entered upon the Mithridatic war. Cin'na, a partisan of Marius, having collected an army in his favor, recalled the veteran warrior, and they soon presented themselves at the gates of Rome. Marius refused to enter the city, alleging that having been banished by a public decree, it was necessary that another should authorize his return. But before the form of annulling the sentence of his banishment was concluded, he entered the city at the head of his guards, and ordered a general massacre of all who had ever been obnoxious to him. Many of those who had never offended him were put to death; and at last, even his own officers could not approach him without terror. He next proceeded to abrogate all laws made by his rival, and associated himself in the consulship with Cinna. Thus having gratified his two favorite passions, vengeance and ambition, his bloody career was arrested by death, and shortly afterwards Cinna was cut off by assassination.

8. In the meantime, these accounts were brought to Sylla, who was pursuing a victorious campaign against Mithridates; but having concluded a peace with that monarch, he hastened to Rome to take vengeance on his enemies. Having entered the city, he caused a more horrible massacre than that which took place under Marius. He ordered eight thousand men, who surrendered themselves to him, to be put to death, while he, without being the least discomposed, harangued the senate. The following day he proscribed forty senators, and sixteen hundred knights, and after a short interval forty senators more, with a much greater number of the most distinguished citizens of Rome. He then caused himself to be proclaimed perpetual Dictator, but after having served for nearly three years, to the astonishment of all mankind, he resigned the dictatorship and retired to the country, where he passed the remainder of his days in the society of licentious persons and the occasional pursuit of literature.

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7. On receiving this intelligence, what did Sylla do? What did Cinna do in favor of Marius? What did Marius refuse? Having entered the city, what did he order? What did he next do?—8. What did Sylla do on entering the city? What did he cause to be proclaimed?

After his death a magnificent monument was erected to him, with the following epitaph, written by himself:—"I am Sylla, the Fortunate, who, in the course of my life, have surpassed both friends and enemies; the former in the good, and the later in the evil I have done them." In the civil war between Marius and Sylla one hundred and fifty thousand Roman citizens are said to have been sacrified, including among them more than two hundred senators and persons of distinguished rank.

9. While the commonwealth was yet distracted by the old dissensions new calamities were added. Spar'tacus, a Thra'cian, who had been kept at Capua as a gladiator, placing himself at the head of an army of slaves, laid waste the country, but was at length totally defeated by Cras'sus, with the loss of forty thousand men. A few years after this event a conspiracy which threatened the destruction of Rome was headed by Cat'iline, a man of courage and talents, but of ruined fortune and of the most profligate character. A plan was concerted for a simultaneous insurrection throughout Italy; that Rome should be fired in different places at once, and that in the general confusion Catiline, at the head of an army, should enter the city and massacre all the senators. The plot was fortunately detected and suppressed by the vigilance and energy of Cic'ero, the great Roman orator, who was Consul at the time. Catilline, at the head of an army of twelve thousand men, was defeated and slain in battle.

CHAPTER V

FROM THE FIRST TRIUM'VIRATE TO THE DISSOLUTION OF THE COMMONWEALTH.—B. C. 60 TO 31.

POM'PEY, who, on account of his military exploits, was surnamed the Great, having been appointed to conduct the Mithridatic war, brought it to a successful termination. He defeated Mithrida'tes and Tigra'nes, king of Arme'nia, reduced Syr'ia, together with Jude'a, to a Roman province. On his return to Rome he was honored with a splendid tri-

What was the epitaph written by himself? How many citizens perished in the civil war?—9. What is related of Spartacus? What took place after this event? What plan was formed? By whom was it detected?

CHAPTER V.—1. What is said of Pompey? How was he honored on his return to Rome?

umph, which continued three days, during which the citizens gazed with astonishment on the spoils of eastern grandeur which preceded his chariot.

2. Pompey, however, found a great rival in Cras'sus, who was the richest man in Rome, and courted popularity by his extensive patronage and unbounded liberality. As they both aspired to the first place in the republic, no little jealousy existed between them. Such was the state of things when Ju'lius Cæ'sar, a young man, who had already distinguished himself by his military achievements, had the address to effect a reconciliation between them and to ingratiate himself into the favor of both. Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar agreed to appropriate to themselves the whole power of the state, and entered into that famous league styled the First Trium'virate.

3. They immediately proceeded to divide the Roman provinces among themselves. Pompey, who remained at Rome, received Spain and Africa; Syria fell to the lot of Crassus, and Cæsar chose Gaul for his portion, and as soon as time permitted proceeded to take possession of his province. Crassus, in a war with the Par'thians, was defeated and slain, leaving the empire to his two colleagues. The brilliant career of victory which attended the arms of Cæsar in Gaul, his high military reputation and increasing popularity, did not fail to awaken a spirit of jealousy in the breast of Pompey. Cæsar, desirous of trying whether his rival would promote or oppose his pretensions, applied to the senate for a continuation of his authority, which was about to expire. That body, being devoted to the interests of Pompey, denied his request, and finally ordered him to lay down his government and disband his forces within a limited time, under the penalty of being considered an enemy to the commonwealth.

4. This hasty measure determined the course of Cæsar. He now resolved to support his claim by force of arms, and, finding his troops devoted to his interest, he immediately commenced his march towards Italy. Having crossed the Alps, he halted at Ravenna and wrote again to the senate, offering to resign all command if Pompey would follow his example; but that body refused to listen to his demand.

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2. In whom did Pompey find a rival? Who effected a reconciliation between them? What did they agree to do?—3. Where did Pompey remain? What fell to the lot of Crassus? What did Cæsar choose? What happened to Crassus? What was the effect of Cæsar's career of victory? What is said of Cæsar?—4. What did he now resolve?

Proceeding on his march, he soon arrived on the banks of the Ru'bicon, a small river separating Italy from Cisal'pine Gaul, and forming the limits of his command. The Romans had always been taught to consider this river as the sacred boundary of their domestic empire. Cæsar, therefore, when arrived at the banks of this famous stream, stopped short, as if impressed with the greatness of his enterprise and its fearful consequences; he pondered for some time in fixed melancholy, looking upon the river, and then observed to Pol'lio, one of his generals, "If I pass this river, what miseries shall I bring upon my country; and if I now stop short, I am undone." Thus saying, he exclaimed, "The die is cast!" and putting spurs to his horse, he plunged into the stream, followed by his troops.

5. The news of Cæsar's movement excited the utmost consternation at Rome. Pompey, who had boasted that he could raise an army by stamping his foot upon the ground, finding himself unable to resist Cæsar in Rome, where the latter had many partisans, led his forces to Capua, where he had a few legions; thence he proceeded to Brundisium, and finally passed over to Dyrrachium, in Macedonia. In his retreat he was followed by the Consuls and the greater part of the senators. Among them were the famous Cato and Cicero, the illustrious orator.

6. Cæsar, in the meantime, having made himself master of all Italy in the space of sixty days, marched to Rome, entered the city in triumph, amidst the acclamations of the citizens, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority. On every occasion he manifested the greatest liberality and clemency; he said that he had entered Italy, not to injure, but to restore the liberties of Rome. After a stay of only a few days he proceeded to Spain, where he defeated Pompey's lieutenant, made himself master of the whole country, and again returned victorious to Rome. The citizens received him with fresh demonstrations of joy and created him Consul and Dictator, but the latter office he resigned after he had held it eleven days.

7. While Cæsar was thus employed, Pompey was equally

When he arrived on the banks of the Rubicon what is related of Cæsar? What did he say?—5. What is said of Pompey? Where did he proceed? By whom was he followed?—6. In the meantime, what did Cæsar do? What did he manifest? Where did he proceed? What was he created?—7. While Cæsar was thus employed, what is said of Pompey?

assiduous in making preparations to oppose him. All the monarchs of the east had declared in his favor and sent him large supplies; his army was numerous and his fleet consisted of five hundred vessels. Cæsar, remaining only eleven days in Rome, led his forces in pursuit of Pompey. But before coming to any general engagement he once more made an effort to bring his rival to an accommodation, offering to refer all to the senate and people of Rome. This overture was rejected, on the ground that the people of Rome were too much in Cæsar's interest.

8. The two armies came in sight of each other near Dyrra'chium, where an engagement took place which terminated in favor of Pompey, who afterwards led his forces to the plains of Pharsa'lia, where he determined to await the arrival of Cæsar, and decide the fate of the empire by a single battle. This was what Cæsar had long and ardently desired; and now, learning the resolution of Pompey, he hastened to meet him. Everything connected with the contest about to follow was intended to excite the deepest interest. The armies were composed of the bravest soldiers in the world, commanded by the two greatest generals of the age, and the prize contended for was nothing less than the Roman empire. Pompey's army consisted of upwards of fifty thousand men, while the forces of Cæsar were less than half that number, yet under much better discipline.

9. As the armies approached, the two generals went from rank to rank, encouraging their men, animating their hopes, or lessening their apprehensions. Pompey urged the justice of his cause, declaring that he was about to battle in the defence of liberty and his country. Cæsar, on the other hand, insisted on nothing so strongly to his soldiers as his frequent and unsuccessful endeavors for peace; he spoke with the deepest regret of the blood he was about to shed, and only pleaded the necessity which urged him to it. There was only enough space between the two armies to give room for fighting. The signal for the onset was given. Cæsar's men rushed to the combat with their usual impetuosity. The dreadful conflict raged with unabating fury from early in the morning till noon, when the scales of victory turned

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Before coming to any engagement, what did Cæsar do?—8. Where did a slight engagement take place? Where did Pompey lead his forces? What is said of Cæsar? What of the armies?—9. As the armies approached, what was done? What did Pompey urge? On what did Cæsar insist? What was the issue of the battle?

in favor of Cæsar, whose loss amounted to only two hundred men. Fifteen thousand of Pompey's troops were left dead upon the plain, and twenty-four thousand surrendered themselves prisoners of war.

10. On this occasion Cæsar manifested his usual clemency and humanity. He set at liberty the senators and Roman knights, and incorporated with his own army the greater number of the prisoners; and without reading them committed to the flames all Pompey's letters. When viewing the field strewed with his fallen countrymen, he seemed deeply affected at the melancholy spectacle, and was heard to say: "They would have it so."

11. The situation of Pompey was deplorable in the extreme. For thirty years he had been accustomed to victory, and ruled the councils of the commonwealth; a single day beheld him precipitated from the summit of power, a miserable fugitive. Escaping from the field of battle, and wandering along the beautiful vale of Tempe, he finally found means of sailing to Lesbos, where he met his wife, Corne'lia. Their meeting was deeply affecting. At the news of his reverse of fortune she fainted; but at length recovering, she ran through the city to the seaside. Pompey received her without speaking a word, and for some time supported her in his arms in silent anguish. The time, however, would not permit him long to indulge in grief. Accompanied by Cornelia, he sailed for Egypt with a few friends to seek protection of Ptolemy, whose father he had befriended. But as he approached the shore he was basely murdered, while yet within sight of his wife, and his body thrown upon the sand. His freedman burnt the corpse and buried the ashes, over which was placed the following inscription: "He can scarcely find a tomb, whose merits deserve a temple."

12. In the meantime Cæsar lost no time in pursuing his rival to Egypt, but on his arrival there the first news he received was the account of Pompey's unfortunate end; and shortly afterwards he was presented with the head and ring of the fallen general, but turning his face from the sight, he gave vent to his feelings in a flood of tears. He soon after-

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What was the number of the slain?—10. What is said of Cæsar on this occasion? On viewing the field, what was he heard to say?—11. What was the situation of Pompey? How did he receive his wife? Where did he sail? What was his fate? What inscription was placed on his tomb?—12. In the meantime what did Cæsar do?

wards ordered a splendid monument to be erected to Pompey's memory. The throne of Egypt, at this time, was disputed by Ptolemy and his sister, the celebrated Cleopa'tra; but Cæsar, captivated by the charms of the beautiful queen, decided the contest in her favor, and at length reduced Egypt to the dominion of Rome. Cæsar, after this event, abandoned himself to pleasure in the company of Cleopatra, but was soon called to suppress the revolt of Phar'naces, the son of Mithridates, who had seized upon Colchis and Armenia. Cæsar defeated him in a battle at Zela with so much ease that, in writing to the senate at Rome, he expressed the rapidity of his victory and suppression of the revolt in these words: *Veni, vidi, vici—"I came, I saw, I conquered."*

13. Leaving the scene of conquest in the East, Cæsar hastened to Rome, where his presence was much required by reason of the disorders occasioned by the bad administration of Antony, who governed the city during his absence; but tranquillity was soon restored. Cæsar's stay at Rome was short, being called into Africa to oppose an army raised by the partisans of Pompey, under the command of Scipio and Cato, assisted by Juba, king of Maurita'nia; he, however, defeated their united forces in the battle of Thapsus. Upon this, Cato, who was a rigid Stoic and stern republican, fled to Utica, where he resolved to resist the power of Cæsar, but finding that all was lost, determined not to survive the liberty of his country, and killed himself in despair.

14. At the conclusion of the war in Africa, Cæsar returned to Rome, and celebrated a magnificent triumph, which lasted four days. The first was for Gaul, the second for Egypt, the third for his victories in the East, and the fourth for his victory over Juba. He distributed liberally rewards to his veteran officers and soldiers. The citizens also shared his bounty; and after distributing a certain quantity of corn, oil, and money among them, he entertained them at a public feast at which twenty thousand tables were set, and treated them to a combat of gladiators. The senate and the people, intoxicated by the allurements of pleasure, seemed to vie with each other in their acts of servility and adulation towards the

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What is said of the throne of Egypt at this time? What is said of Cæsar? After the battle of Zela how did Cæsar express the rapidity of his victory?—13. What was Cæsar's next course? What called him into Africa? What is related of Cato?—14. At the conclusion of the war what did Cæsar do? How did he entertain the people?

man who had deprived them of their liberty. He was hailed as the father of his country, created perpetual Dictator, received the title of Emperor, and his person was declared sacred.

15. Having restored order in Rome he again found himself obliged to go into Spain, where Labie'nus and the two sons of Pompey had raised an army against him; but he completely defeated them in an obstinate battle, fought on the plains of Munda. Cæsar, by this victory, having triumphed over all his enemies, devoted the remainder of his life to the benefit of the commonwealth. As clemency was his favorite virtue, he readily pardoned all who had at any time borne arms against him. Without any distinction of party, he seemed only to consider the happiness and prosperity of the people. He adorned the city with magnificent buildings; rebuilt Carthage and Corinth, sending colonies to both these places. He corrected many abuses in the state, reformed the calendar, undertook to drain the Pontine marsh, and intended to cut through the isthmus of Poloponnesus.

16. But while he thus meditated projects beyond the limits of the longest life, a deep conspiracy was formed against him, embracing no less than sixty senators, among whom were Bru'tus and Cas'sius, whose lives had been spared by the conqueror after the battle of Pharsalia. It had been rumored that a crown would be presented to him on the ides of March —the 15th of that month. The conspirators therefore fixed upon that day for the execution of their design.

Accordingly, as soon as Cæsar had taken his seat in the senate-house, they assembled around him under the pretence of soliciting the pardon of a certain individual who had been banished by Cæsar's order, and assailed him with their daggers. The illustrious Roman defended himself for some time with great vigor, until seeing Brutus, his friend, whom he tenderly loved, among the conspirators, he exclaimed, *Et tu, Brute!" "And you too, Brutus!"* then resigning himself to his fate and covering his face with his robe, he fell, pierced with twenty-three wounds, at the base of Pompey's statue.

How was he hailed?—15. Why was he again obliged to go into Spain? Having triumphed over all his enemies what did he resolve to do? Mention some of the acts he now performed.—16. What was formed against him? What had been rumored? What happened as Cæsar took his seat in the senate-house? How did he defend himself? On seeing Brutus what did he say? What was his age?

PLACE WHERE MARK ANTONY DELIVERED FUNERAL ORATION OVER CÆSAR.

Thus perished Julius Cæsar, in the fifty-sixth year of his age—a man whose ruling passion was ambition, and whose redeeming virtue was clemency.*

17. No sooner was the death of Cæsar known than the whole city was thrown into the utmost consternation. His bleeding corpse was exposed in the forum; his friend, Mark Antony, pronounced over it a funeral oration, and by his eloquent appeals to the sympathy of the people so inflamed their resentment against the murderers that they were obliged to escape from the city.

Mark Antony, who was a man of great military talents, but of a most profligate character; Lep'idus, who was possessed of immense wealth; and Octa'vius Cæ'sar, afterwards surnamed Augustus, who was Cæsar's grandnephew and adopted heir, now formed the design of dividing among themselves the supreme authority, and thus establishing the second Triumvirate, which produced the most dreadful calamities in the Roman republic.

18. They stipulated that all their enemies should be destroyed, each sacrificing his nearest friends to the vengeance of his colleagues. Thus Antony consigned to death his uncle Lucius; Lepidus, his brother Paulus; and Octavius gave up his friend, the celebrated Cicero, to whom he was under the most binding obligation, in order to gratify the hatred of Antony. The illustrious orator was assassinated in the sixty-fourth year of his age, by Popil'lius Lanus, whose life he had saved in a capital case. Rome was again deluged in the blood of her citizens; in the horrible proscription that followed three hundred senators with two thousand knights, besides many other persons of distinguished rank, were sacrified.

19. In the meantime Brutus and Cassius, having retired into Thrace, collected an army of one hundred thousand men, and made the last and expiring effort to restore the commonwealth. Antony and Octavius marched against them with an army superior in number. Again the empire of the world

* See his biography at the close of the volume; also, Shakespeare's play of "Julius Cæsar."

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17. What was done by Mark Antony? Who composed the second Triumvirate?—18. What did they stipulate? What was the fate of the illustrious orator? What is said of Rome?—19. What was done by Brutus and Cassius? By whom were they opposed?

depended upon the issue of a single battle. The two armies met on the plains of Philip'pi, and after a dreadful conflict, which lasted for two days, the death-blow was given to Roman liberty, by the total defeat of the republican army. Brutus and Cassius resolving not to survive the liberties of their country, avoided the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death.

20. The power of the Trium'viri being thus established upon the ruins of the commonwealth, they began to think of enjoying the honors to which they had aspired. Lepidus was shortly after deposed and banished. Antony went into Greece, and having made a brief stay at Athens, he passed into Asia. He proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a crowd of sovereigns, exacting contributions and giving away crowns with capricious insolence. He summoned Cleopa'tra, queen of Egypt, to Tarsus, to answer to the charge of having aided the conspirators. She accordingly came, decked in all the emblems of a royal coquette. Her galley was covered with gold; the sails of purple floating to the wind; the oars of silver swept to the sound of flutes and cymbals. Cleopatra reclined upon a couch spangled with stars of gold, and such ornaments as the poets usually ascribe to Venus. Antony, captivated by her charms, forgot to decide upon her cause, and giving up all the pursuits of ambition, abandoned himself to pleasure in the company of the beautiful Egyptian queen. He lavished on her the provinces of the Roman empire; and having on her account divorced his wife Octavia, the sister of his colleague, an open rupture took place between him and Octavius.

21. The great battle of Ac'tium decided the contest in favor of Octavius, who, by this victory, was left sole master of the empire. After this defeat, Antony put an end to his life by falling on his sword; and Cleopatra, to avoid being led captive to Rome to grace the triumph of Augustus, procured her own death by the poison of an asp.*

* For a fuller account of ancient Roman history, see Liddell's *History of Rome.*

Where did the armies meet? What was the issue of the battle? What was the fate of Brutus and Cassius?—20. What was the fate of Lepidus? Where did Antony go? What is related of Cleopatra? What did he lavish on her? What took place between him and Octavius?—21. What is said of the battle of Actium? What was the end of Antony and of Cleopatra?

ROME AS AN EMPIRE
B.C. 31 to A.D. 306.
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
New Castle
York
BRITAIN
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
GERMAN OCEAN
NORWAY
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
RUSSIA
SARMATIA
SCYTHIA
Volga R.
Ural R.
CASPIAN SEA
PARTHIA
GERMANY
Vistula R.
RHETIA
NORICA
PANNONIA
DACIA
Danube R.
Dniester R.
EUXINE
BLACK SEA
GAUL
SPAIN
Seville
ILLYRICHIA
Salona
DALMATIA
ADRIATIC SEA
Rome
Naples
Malta
Pompeii
Herculaneum
Capreæ
Mt. Vesuvius
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GREECE
Smyrna
ASSYRIA
Tigris R.
MESOPOTAMIA
Euphrates R.
Palmyra
100 200 300
Scale of Miles

CHAPTER VI

ROME AS AN EMPIRE

THE CÆSARS: AUGUSTUS, TIBERIUS, CALIGULA, CLAUDIUS, NERO, GALBA, OTHO, VITELLIUS, VESPASIAN, TITUS, AND DOMITIAN.—B. C. 31 TO A. D. 96.

BY the death of Antony, Octavius, now styled Augustus, become sole master of the Roman empire. Having returned in triumph to Rome, he endeavored, by sumptuous feasts and magnificent shows, to obliterate the impressions of his former cruelty, and resolved to secure, by acts of clemency and benevolence, that throne, the foundation of which was laid in blood. Having established order in the state, Augustus found himself agitated by different inclinations, and considered for some time whether he should retain the imperial authority or restore the republic. By Agrip'pa he was advised to pursue the latter course; but following the advice of Mæcenas, he resolved to retain the sovereign authority.

2. In his administration, Augustus affected an appearance of great moderation and respect for the public rights, and having gained the affections of the people and his soldiers, he endeavored by every means to render permanent their attachment. As a military commander he was more fortunate than eminent; though the general character of his reign was pacific, still several wars were successfully carried on by his lieutenants. He seemed to aim at gaining a character by the arts of peace alone. He embellished the city, erected public buildings, and pursued the policy of maintaining order and tranquillity in every portion of his vast dominions. During his reign the temple of Janus was closed for the first time since the commencement of the second Punic war, and the third time from the reign of Numa.

Augustus having accompanied Tiberius in his march into

CHAPTER VI.—1. Who now became sole master of the empire? What did he endeavor to do? By what was he agitated? Whose advice did he follow?—2. What did Augustus affect? What is said of him as a general? During his reign, what was closed?

Illyria, was taken dangerously ill, and, on his return, died at No'la, near Capua, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, after an illustrious reign of forty-four years.

3. Augustus was possessed of eminent ability, both as a warrior and statesman; but the cruelties and treachery practised by him while a member of the triumvirate, have left an indelible stain upon his character, and render it doubtful whether the virtues which he manifested in after-life sprang from policy or from principle. The Emperor and his chief minister, Mæcenas, were both eminent patrons of learning and the arts; and the Augustan age of Roman literature has been justly admired by all succeeding times. Among those who distinguished his reign were the celebrated poets, Virgil, Horace, and Ovid, with Livy, the historian. But the most glorious event which took place during the reign of Augustus, was the birth of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ, which happened, according to the best authorities, in the twenty-sixth year of his reign, and four years before the period commonly assigned for the Christian era.

4. Previous to his death, Augustus had nominated Tibe'rius to succeed him on the throne. The new Emperor, at the commencement of his reign, exhibited a show of moderation and clemency; but he soon threw off the mask and appeared in his natural character, as a cruel and odious tyrant. The brilliant success of his nephew German'icus, in Germany, excited the jealousy of Tiberius, who recalled him to Rome, and is supposed to have caused his death by poison. Having then taken into his confidence Seja'nus, a Roman knight, who became the minister of his cruelty and pleasure, he retired to the island of Capreæ, and abandoned himself to the most infamous debaucheries. Sejanus, now possessed of almost unlimited power, committed the most fearful cruelties against the citizens of Rome. Nero and Drusus, the sons of Germanicus, were starved to death in prison. Sabinus, Gallus, and other distinguished persons, were executed upon slight pretences. But the career of the brutal Sejanus was of short duration. Being accused of treason, he was sud-

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Where did he die? What was his age and length of his reign?—3. What is said of the abilities of Augustus? Of what was he patron? Who were distinguished in his reign? What was the most memorable event that took place during it?—4. Whom did Augustus nominate? How did he commence his reign? What excited his jealousy? Whom did he take into his confidence? What is said of Sejanus?

dently precipitated from his elevation and executed by order of the senate. His body was afterwards dragged ignominiously through the streets.

5. This event seemed only to increase the Emperor's rage and cruelty. He became weary of particular executions, and gave orders that all the accused should be put to death without further examination. When one Carnu'lius had killed himself to avoid the torture, Tiberius exclaimed: "Ah, how has that man been able to escape me!" He died in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign; his death was hastened either by strangling or poison. In the eighteenth year of this Emperor's reign, our Lord Jesus Christ suffered death upon the cross.

6. Tiberius adopted for his successor Calig'ula, who commenced his reign under the most favorable auspices; indeed his first acts were even beneficent and patriotic; but his subsequent conduct was marked by every species of human depravity. He received divine honors and caused temples to be built and sacrifices to be offered to himself as a divinity. He took such delight in cruelty, that he wished that all the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them at a single blow. Happily for mankind the reign of this monster was of short duration; he was assassinated in the twenty-ninth year of his age, and fourth of his reign, A. D. 41.

7. After the death of Calig'ula, his uncle Clau'dius, the grandson of Mark Antony, was raised to the throne. He was a man of weak and timid character, and a slave to the most degrading vices. The only remarkable enterprise during his reign was his expedition into Britain. Carac'tacus, a patriotic prince of that island, after a brave resistance, was taken prisoner and carried captive to Rome. As he passed through the streets and observed the splendor of the city, he exclaimed, "How is it possible that men possessed of such magnificence at home, should envy Caractacus in a humble cottage in Britain?"

What was his fate? What orders did the emperor give now? What exclamation did he make? When did he die? What took place in the eighteenth year of his reign?—6. By whom was he succeeded? What is said of him? What did he assume? How did he die?—7. Who was next raised to the throne? What was his character? Who was led captive to Rome? What did he exclaim?

Claudius was poisoned, A. D. 54, by his wife Agrippi'na, in the fourteenth year of his reign, and the sixty-fourth of his age, in order to make room for Ne'ro, her son by a former husband.

8. Nero, now in the seventeenth year of his age, began his reign with general approbation; he was even so much inclined to clemency and forgiveness, that, when obliged to sign a warrant for the execution of a criminal, he would exclaim, "Would to heaven that I had never learned to write." He had received an excellent education under the philosopher Seneca, and while he followed the counsels of his illustrious preceptor, he governed with much success. But as he advanced in age, every trace of virtue vanished with his increasing years. Abandoning the advice of his virtuous counsellors, he soon gave himself up to every species of depravity, and rendered his name proverbial in all succeeding ages as a detestable tyrant. The first alarming instance of his cruelty, was the revolting assassination of his own mother, Agrippina. Among others who fell victims to his brutality, were Senec'a, the philosopher, Bur'rhus, the prefect of the pretorian guard, and Lu'can, the poet.

9. In his wild extravagance he even caused the city of Rome to be set on fire, that it might exhibit the representation of the burning of Troy, and stood upon a high tower that he might enjoy the scene. The conflagration continued for nine days, and a great part of the splendid city was burnt to ashes. But in order to avert from himself the public odium of this action, he openly charged it upon the Christians, who had now become numerous at Rome, and conducted against them a violent persecution, during which the two illustrious apostles, St. Peter and St. Paul, suffered martyrdom. The former was crucified with his head downwards; the latter, being a Roman citizen, had the honor of dying by the sword. Nero, having rendered himself contemptible by his follies and crimes, was soon destined to finish his career by a tragical end. The army in Spain, having declared against him, raised Gal'ba to the throne; and the unhappy

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What was the end of Claudius?—8. Who succeeded him? What is said of Nero? By whom was he educated? What was the first alarming instance of his cruelty? Who were some of the other victims?—9. What did he cause? How long did the conflagration last? How did he avert the odium from himself? During the persecution, who suffered martyrdom? What did the army in Spain do?

tyrant, finding himself deserted by all and condemned by the senate, avoided falling into the hands of his enemies by a voluntary death, in the fourteenth year of his reign and the thirty-second of his age.

10. On the death of Nero, Galba was acknowledged Emperor by the senate, as he had been previously declared by the legions under his command. He was a man of much prudence and virtue, and had acquired a high military reputation, but he was now in the seventy-second year of his age, and soon became unpopular with the army because of his severity and parsimony. At length, finding himself unable to sustain the duties of the government alone, he adopted for his successor the virtuous Pi'so. This measure, however, gave rise in the army to a revolt headed by O'tho, which terminated in the death both of the Emperor and Piso, after a reign of seven months. Tac'itus says of him, that "had he never ascended the throne, he would have been deemed by all capable of reigning."

11. Otho was now declared Emperor by the army; but in Vitel'lius he found a formidable rival, who also aspired to the imperial throne. Being defeated, Otho slew himself, after a reign of ninety-five days. Upon this event, Vitellius was proclaimed Emperor, but having rendered himself odious to the people by his profligacy and tyranny, he was assassinated before he had completed the first year of his reign. At the same time, Vespa'sian, who was at the head of the army in Egypt, was proclaimed Emperor by his troops. On the arrival of the newly elected Emperor at Rome, he was received with universal joy. From a humble origin he had risen to the highest station in the state; he was equally distinguished for his affability, clemency, and firmness. He ornamented the city by erecting various edifices, built the amphitheatre or colosseum, cherished the arts, and was a patron of learned men, among whom were Jose'phus, the Jewish historian, Quintil'ian, the orator, and Plin'y, the naturalist.

12. The most memorable event of the reign of Vespasian was the destruction of Jerusalem by his son Ti'tus. After

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What was the end of Nero?—10. Who was now acknowledged by the senate? What is said of Galba? Whom did he adopt? What was his end? What did Tacitus say of him?—11. Who was now declared Emperor? What was his fate? Who succeeded? What was the end of Vitellius? Who was next? From what had he risen? Of what was he the patron?—12. What was the most memorable event of his reign?

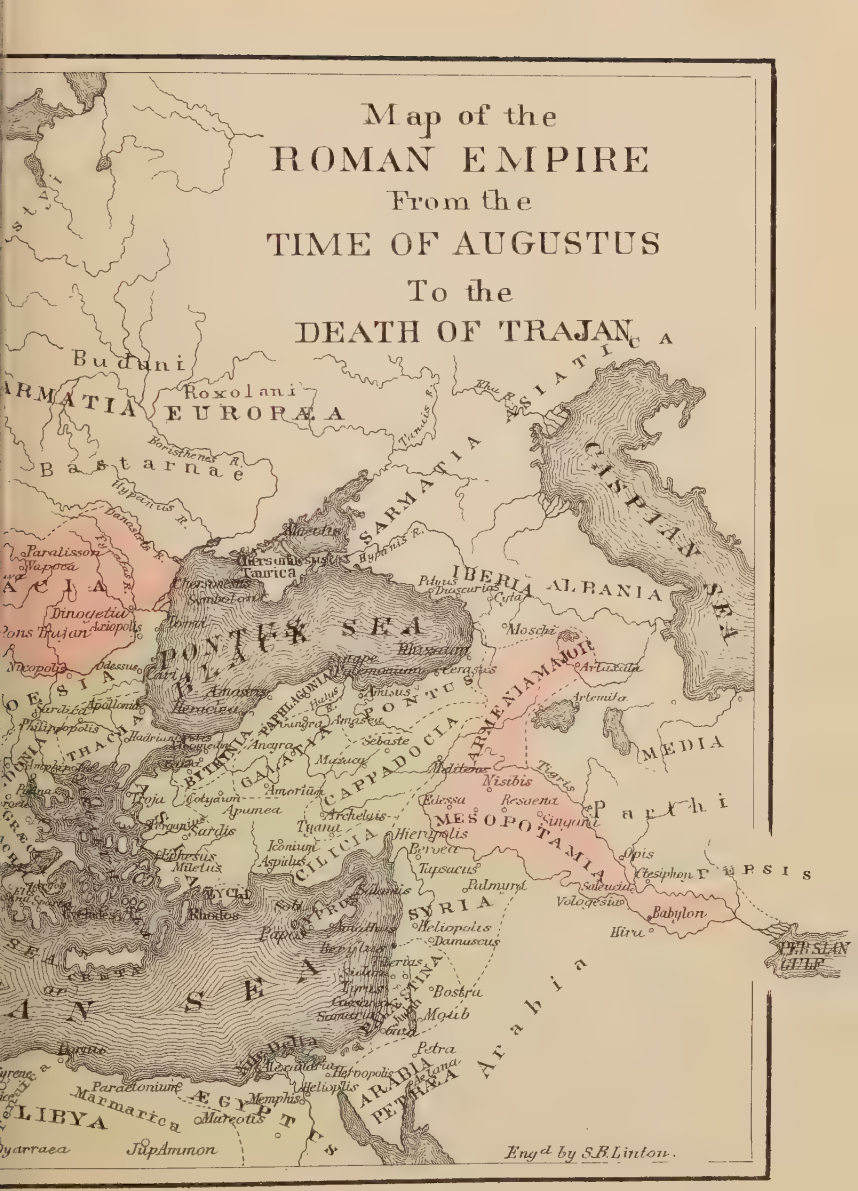
a tremendous siege of six months, the city was taken and razed to the ground, verifying the predictions of our Divine Savior, that "not a stone should remain upon a stone." According to Josephus, the number of Jews that perished during the siege exceeded one million, and the captives amounted to almost one hundred thousand. Vespasian, having reigned ten years, beloved by his subjects, died at Campania, in the seventieth year of his age, A. D. 79.

13. The late Emperor was succeeded by his son Titus, who, on account of his amiable virtues, his justice, and humanity, obtained the appellation of the "Delight of mankind." Recollecting one evening that he had done no act of beneficence during that day, he exclaimed, "My friends, I have lost a day." His reign is memorable for the great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which overwhelmed the cities of Hercula'neum and Pompe'ii, and caused the death of Pliny, the naturalist, whose curiosity led him too near the scene. Titus died in the third year of his reign, and in the forty-first of his age; but strong suspicion was entertained that he was poisoned by his brother Domitian, who succeeded to the throne A. D. 81.

14. In his character Domitian was another Nero. He caused himself to be worshipped as a god. Many of the most illustrious men of Rome fell victims to his cruelty. He banished the philosophers from the city and raised a dreadful persecution against the Christians. He frequently shut himself up in his chamber and amused himself by catching flies and piercing them with a bodkin; hence his servant, being asked if any one was with the Emperor, replied, "No, not even a fly." His reign was signalized by the success of Roman arms in Britain. The imperial authority was firmly established there by Agric'ola, a distinguished general, who had been sent to the country by Vespasian, and had conquered all the southern portion of the island. Domitian was assassinated at the instigation of his wife, in the fifteenth year of his reign, A. D. 96. He was the last of those Emperors called the Twelve Cæsars, Julius Cæsar, the Dictator, being considered the first—although Augustus was the first who was generally styled Emperor.

What number of Jews perished during the siege? When did he die?—13. By whom was he succeeded? What is said of Titus? For what is his reign memorable? When did he die?—14. What is said of Domitian, his successor? What instance is given of his cruelty? By what was his reign signalized? How did he die? Of whom was he the last?

Orcades or Shetland Is.
Ebudes or Western Is.
Hibernia
Britannia
Caledonia
Germania
Gallia
Belgica
Aquitania
Lugdunensis
Narbonensis
Hispania
Baetica
Tarraconensis
Lusitania
Mauritania
Numidia
Africa
Italia
Sardinia
Corsica
Sicilia
Rhaetia
Noricum
Pannonia
Dalmatia
Moesia
Thracia
Macedonia
Achaia
Epirus
Asia
Syria
Cilicia
Cyprus
Creta
Rhodus
Aegyptus
Cyrenaica
Libya
Sahara
Germania Magna
Sarmatia
Suevi
Burgundiones
Rugii
Gothi
Getae
Dacia
Illyricum
Pannonia
Mare Atlanticum
Mare Mediterraneum
Mare Adriaticum
Mare Ionium
Mare Aegaeum
Mare Baltic
Mare Germanicum
Mare Britannicum
Fretum Gaditanum
Straits of Gibraltar
Fretum Siculum
Sinus Syrticus
Sinus Carthaginiensis
Sinus Gallicus
Sinus Tarentinus
Sinus Adriaticus
Sinus Ionius
Sinus Aegaeus
Sinus Arabicus
Sinus Persicus
Mare Caspium
Mare Rubrum
Mare Nostrum
Mare Internum
Mare Tyrrhenum
Mare Ligusticum
Mare Siculum
Mare Libycum
Mare Cretaeum
Mare Myrtoum
Mare Icarium
Mare Carpathium
Mare Pamphylium
Mare Aegyptium
Mare Erythraeum
Mare Arabicum
Mare Persicum


Map of the
ROMAN EMPIRE
From the
TIME OF AUGUSTUS
To the
DEATH OF TRAJAN.
Budini
Roxolani
EUROPÆA
Bastarnæ
SARMATIA ASIATICA
CASPIAN SEA
IBERIA
ALBANIA
PONTUS
EUXINE SEA
MOESIA
THRACIA
GALATIA
CAPPADOCIA
ARMENIA MAJOR
MEDIA
Parthi
MESOPOTAMIA
CILICIA
SYRIA
PHOENICIA
JUDÆA
ARABIA
Arabia
PERSIS
PERSIAN GULF
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
LIBYA
AEGYPTUS
Engd by S.B.Linton.

CHAPTER VII

FROM NERVA TO CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.—A. D. 96 TO 305.

1. AFTER the death of Domitian, Ner'va was elected to the throne. He was a man distinguished for virtue and clemency, but did not possess sufficient energy to suppress the disorders of the empire; and having adopted Tra'jan for his successor, he died after a short reign of sixteen months.

2. Trajan, a native of Seville, in Spain, is esteemed one of the greatest and most powerful of the Roman Emperors. He was equally distinguished for affability, clemency, and munificence. On presenting the sword to the Prefect of the prætorian guard, he made use of these remarkable words: "Make use of it for me, if I do my duty; if not, use it against me." The senate conferred on him the title of Optimus, the Best, and that body was long accustomed to salute every newly elected Emperor with this expression: "Reign fortunately as Augustus, and virtuously as Trajan."

3. Trajan was one of the greatest generals of his age. He enlarged the boundaries of the empire, subdued the Parthians, brought under subjection Assyria, Arabia Felix, and Mesopotamia, and in commemoration of his victory over the Dacians he erected a pillar at Rome, which bears his name, and which still remains as one of the most remarkable monuments of that city.

He was a munificent patron of literature, and in his reign Pliny, the younger, Ju'venal, and Plu'tarch flourished. Although this prince was much celebrated for his virtues, still his character has been tarnished by a want of equity with regard to the Christians, who were persecuted during his reign. He died of apoplexy, in the sixty-third year of his age, and the twentieth of his reign, A. D. 117.

4. Trajan was succeeded by A'drian, his nephew, who, in some respects, was the most remarkable of the Roman Em-

CHAPTER VII.—1. Who was now elected to the throne? What is said of Nerva? 2. What is said of Trajan? What words did he make use of on presenting the sword to the Prefect of the guard? 3. What was Trajan? What did he erect? Of what was he the patron? What has tarnished his character? When did he die? 4. By whom was he succeeded?

perors. His administration was generally just and beneficent. He was highly skilled in all the accomplishments of the age; he composed with great beauty, both in prose and verse; he pleaded at the bar, and was one of the best orators of his time. Deeming the limits of the empire too extensive, he abandoned the career of conquest and devoted himself to the arts of peace. He spent thirteen years in visiting the provinces of the empire, and during his progress he reformed abuses, relieved his subjects from many burdens, and rebuilt various cities. While in Britain, he caused a turf wall to be erected across the island from Carlisle to Newcastle, in order to prevent the incursions of the Picts.

5. He rebuilt the city of Jerusalem, and changed its name to Ælia Capitolina. In consequence of an insurrection of the Jews, he sent against them a powerful army, which destroyed about one thousand of their towns and nearly six hundred thousand of these unfortunate people; he then banished all those who survived, and by a public decree forbade them to return within view of their native soil. He passed several wise regulations, among which was a law prohibiting masters to kill their slaves, as had been before allowed, but ordained that they should be tried by the laws enacted against capital offences. Adrian, having adopted for his successor Titus Antoni'nus, died after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years, and in the sixty-third year of his age, A. D. 138.

6. Antoninus, surnamed the Pious, was eminently distinguished for his public and private virtues, although his reign was marked by few striking events. He showed himself one of the most excellent princes for justice, clemency, and moderation. During his reign, St. Justin, the Martyr, wrote his "Apology for the Christians," and directed it to the Emperor, the senate, and the people of Rome. Still many Christians continued to suffer for their faith. Having adopted Mar'cus Au'relius Antoninus for his successor, he expired at Lorium, near Rome, in the twenty-third year of his reign, and in the seventieth of his age, A. D. 161.

In what was he skilful? What did he abandon? In what did he spend thirteen years of his reign? What did he do in Britain?—5. What city did he rebuild? What severity did he exercise against the Jews? Whom did he adopt for his successor? When did he die?—6. What did Antonius show himself? Who wrote an Apology for the Christians? When and where did he die?

7. Marcus Aurelius was esteemed a model of pagan virtue, and was greatly attached, both by nature and education, to the Stoic philosophy, which he exemplified in his life, as well as illustrated in his book, entitled "Meditations." While engaged in a war with the Germans, his army experienced a remarkable deliverance through the prayers of a Christian legion then serving under his command. The Emperor, in a letter to the senate, after stating the distressed situation of his army, says: "I put up my fervent prayers to the gods for our relief; but the gods were deaf. I knew there were many Christians in the army. I called them around me and commanded them to address their God in our behalf. No sooner had they fallen upon their knees to pray, than a copious and refreshing rain fell from the heavens. But while the rain was refreshing to us, it drove furiously against our enemies, like a tempest of hail, attended with vivid flashes of lightning and dreadful claps of thunder. Wherefore, since the prayers of these people are so powerful with their God, let us grant to the Christians full liberty of professing themselves such, lest they employ their prayers against us. My will is that their religion be no longer considered a crime in them."

8. The Christian soldiers who had saved the Roman army by their prayers were afterwards distinguished by the name of the Thundering Legion. But notwithstanding the humane disposition of Aurelius, many Christians suffered during his reign, owing chiefly to the violence of Verus, his colleague in the empire. Among the most illustrious who received the crown of martyrdom were St. Jus'tin, and St. Pol'ycarp, the illustrious Bishop of Smyrna. Aurelius died in the nineteenth year of his reign, and the fifty-ninth of his age, A. D. 180. He was the last of those styled the five good Emperors.

9. Aurelius was succeeded by his degenerate son, Com'modus, whose whole reign was a tissue of folly, cruelty, and injustice; but his crimes finally brought him to a tragical end. He was assassinated in the thirteenth year of his reign, and

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7. What is said of Marcus Aurelius? In a war with the Germans, what did he experience? Can you relate, in substance, his letter to the senate?—8. What is said of the Christian soldiers? Of the Christians during his reign? Who were the most illustrious of the sufferers? At what age, and when did he die?—9. What is said of Commodus? What was his end?

thirty-second of his age. Per'tinax, a man of humble birth, who had risen by his merit, and was styled the "tennis-ball of fortune," on account of the various conditions through which he had passed, was proclaimed Emperor by the pretorian guards. But having given offence by his severity, in correcting abuses, he was put to death by the hands of the very soldiers who had raised him to the throne only three months before.

10. The empire was now put up for sale by the soldiers, and purchased by Did'ius Julian'us, for the sum of $9,000,000. But the new Emperor enjoyed the honors of royalty for the space of only five months, being assassinated by the order of Septi'mius Seve'rus, who was proclaimed Emperor in his stead. Severus having triumphed over his two competitors, Ni'ger and Albi'nus, governed with great ability. He made an expedition into Britain, and built a stone wall extending from Solway Frith to the German Ocean, and nearly parallel with that of Adrian. He died at York, in the eighteenth year of his reign, and in the sixty-sixth of his age, A. D. 211.

11. Severus left the empire to his two sons, Caracal'la and Geta, but Caracalla resolving to govern alone, murdered his brother in the arms of his mother. His tyranny and cruelty at length excited against him the resentment of Macri'nus, the commander of his forces, who caused him to be assassinated, in the sixth year of his reign. Macri'nus was immediately declared Emperor in his place, but, after a reign of fourteen months, was in his turn supplanted by Heliogab'alus, by whose command he was put to death. Heliogabalus was only in the fourteenth year of his age when he succeeded to the throne, yet he showed himself to be a monster of vice, cruelty, and extravagance. He was murdered by the soldiers, and his body thrown into the Tiber, after a brief reign of four years, having in that short period married and divorced six wives.

12. Alexan'der Seve'rus, his cousin, who was chosen to succeed him, was a mild and amiable prince, whose excellent

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By whom was he succeeded? What was the fate of Pertinax?—10. What was now done with the empire? By whom was it purchased? What was his end? Who succeeded? When and where did Severus die?—11. To whom did Severus leave the empire? What is related of Caracalla? What was his fate? Who was declared emperor? By whose command was he put to death, and who succeeded? What is said of Heliogabalus? What was his end?—12. Who was chosen to succeed him?

character shines with redoubled lustre when contrasted with those who preceded and those who followed him. His acquirements were equal to his virtues. He excelled in music, painting, sculpture, and poetry. During an expedition against the Germans, who had made an irruption into the empire, he was murdered by a mutiny of his soldiers, in the fourteenth year of his reign, and twenty-ninth of his age, A. D. 235.

13. On the death of Alexander, Max'imin, who had headed the mutiny against him, was elevated to the throne. Maximin was the son of a herdsman of Thrace, and was no less remarkable for the symmetry of his person and extraordinary strength than for his gigantic stature, being eight and a half feet in height. He was also distinguished for his military talents. Previous to his elevation he was remarkable for his simplicity, discipline, and virtue; but after his accession to the throne he became a monster of cruelty, and seemed to sport with the terrors of mankind. He was finally assassinated by his soldiers, in the third year of his reign.

14. The interval from the reign of Max'imin, and that of Diocle'tian, was filled by sixteen reigns, which furnish little that is pleasing, interesting, or instructive. Of all the Emperors who successively occupied the throne during that period of forty-six years, Claudius and Tacitus alone died natural deaths. The Emperor Vale'rian, in a war with Sa'por, king of Persia, was defeated and taken prisoner. The Persian monarch treated his captive with the greatest indignity and cruelty. He used him as a footstool for mounting his horse, and finally ordered him to be put to death, then caused him to be flayed, and his skin to be painted red, and suspended in one of the Persian temples, as a monument of disgrace to the Romans.

15. The reign of Aure'lian was distinguished for brilliant military achievements. He defeated the Goths and repelled the incursions of the Germans; but his most renowned victory was that over Zeno'bia, the famous queen of Palmy'ra, who fell into his hands; her secretary, Longi'nus, the celebrated critic, was put to death by the order of the conqueror. On his

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What is said of Alexander Severus? How and when did he die?—13. Who succeeded to the throne? For what was Maximin remarkable? How did he die?—14. How many reigns between that of Maximin and Diocletian? What is related of the Emperor Valerian? 15. For what was the reign of Aurelian distinguished? What was his most renowned victory?

return to Rome, Aurelian was honored with a most splendid triumph. Zenobia was reserved to grace the scene, bound in chains of gold, and decked with a profusion of pearls and diamonds.

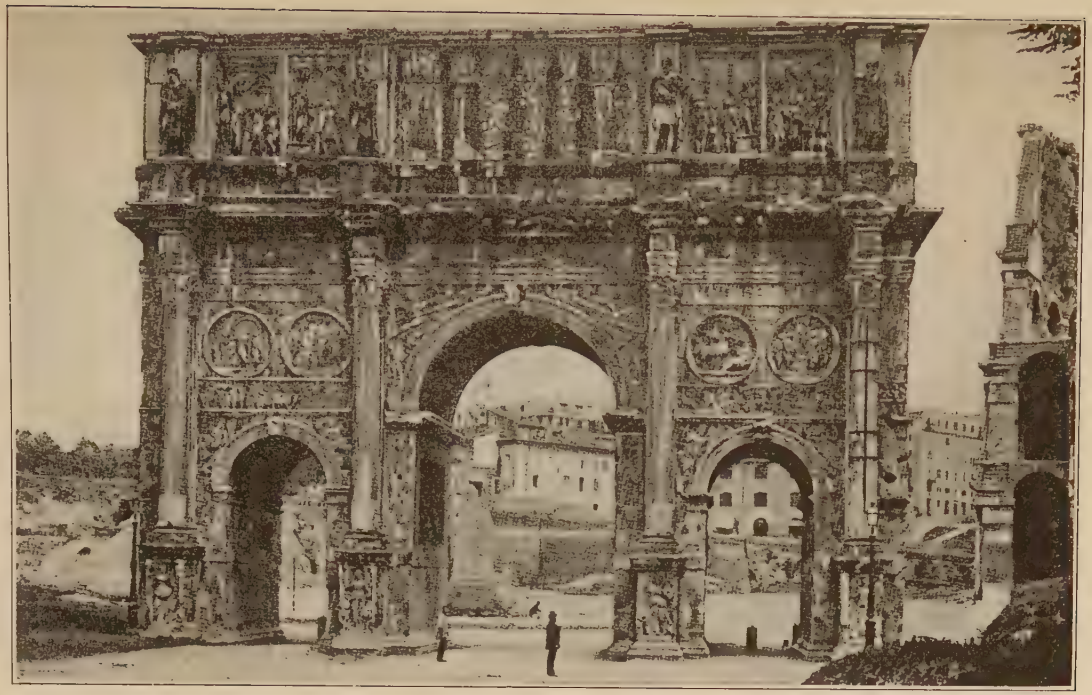
16. Diocletian, who was a son of a Dalma'tian slave, rose by his merit from the rank of a common soldier to that of an eminent commander, and was finally elevated to the throne, on the death of Numerian, A. D. 284.

Two years after his accession he associated with himself, in government, his friend Maximin; and in the year 292 they took two other colleagues, Gale'rius and Constan'tius, each bearing the title of Cæsar. The empire was now divided into four parts, under the government of two Emperors and two Cæsars, each nominally supreme, but in reality controlled by the superior talents of Diocletian.

17. At this time happened the tenth and last persecution of the Christians, which continued for several years with so much violence that the brutual tyrants boasted that they had extinguished the Christian name.

Diocletian and Maximin, in the midst of their triumphs, surprised the world by resigning their dignities on the same day and both retiring into private station, A. D. 305. It is generally believed that they were compelled to take this step by Galerius, who, together with Constan'tius, was immediately afterwards acknowledged Emperor. Diocletian seems to have been contented with his lot. He retired to Salona, in his native country, Dalmatia, where he lived eight years, and amused himself in cultivating a small garden. Maximin attempted several times, but in vain, to resume the sovereign power which he had abdicated, and even to murder his son-in-law, Con'stantine; but being detected, he slew himself in despair.

What is said of Zenobia?—16. What is said of Diocletian? Whom did he associate with himself in the government? How was the empire now divided?—17. What happened at this time? How did Diocletian and Maximin surprise the world? Where did Diocletian retire? What is said of Maximin?



ARCH OF CONSTANTINE.

CHAPTER VIII

FROM THE ACCESSION OF CON'STANTINE TO THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.—A. D. 306 TO 476.

CONSTAN'TIUS died at York, in Britain, having previously appointed his son Con'stantine, surnamed the Great, his successor. Con'stantine had several competitors for the crown. Of these, Maxentius was the most formidable; he had made himself master of Italy and Rome. As the Emperor was on his march, at the head of his army, against his rival, he saw in the heavens, after midday, a luminous cross, bearing this inscription in Greek: *"By this conquer."** This circumstance is related by several historians of that period, particularly by Eusebius, in his life of Constantine. In consequence of this vision the Emperor avowed himself the friend and supporter of Christianity, and caused a splendid banner, called the Lab'arum, to be carried before his army, bearing a representation of the cross he had seen in the heavens. He now prosecuted the war against Maxen'tius with redoubled energy. A final battle was fought on the banks of the Tiber, in which Constantine was victorious. Maxentius himself perished in the river, A. D. 312.

2. On the following day Constantine made a solemn entry into Rome, where he was received with universal joy, and hailed as the deliverer of the empire. As a lasting monument of this event a magnificent triumphal arch was built at the foot of Mount Palatine; it remains at the present time. He published an edict in favor of Christianity, which he did not yet embrace; but claims the honor of being enrolled as the first Christian Emperor. He put an end to the persecution of the Christians, also to the combats of gladiators, and other barbarous exhibitions. His reign forms an important era in ecclesiastical history, as the Roman government now lent all its influence to support that religion which

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CHAPTER VIII.—1. What had Constantine? What is related of him as he marched at the head of his army? In consequence of this vision, what did he do? Where was a final battle fought?—2. On the following day what did Constantine do? What did he publish? What does his reign form?

it had vainly but repeatedly attempted to destroy. The reign of Constantine is memorable for the celebrated Council of Nice, convoked for the purpose of condemning the heresy of Arius, who denied the divinity of Christ.

3. But the most important event of his reign was the removal of the capital of the empire from Rome to Byzan'tium, in Thrace, where he built a magnificent city, called from his own name, Constantino'ple. As the empire had long been verging to ruin, this measure is thought by many to have hastened its downfall. Constantine died at Nicomed'ia, after a successful reign of thirty-one years, and in the sixty-third of his age, A. D. 337. The character of Constantine has been variously represented by different writers. His greatest fault was his severity towards his son Crispus, a young prince of the most amiable character; the Emperor being so far deceived by artful calumny as to believe him guilty of the most atrocious design, in the first moment of indignation caused him to be put to death. He has also been charged with a lack of political sagacity in removing the seat of government. Still, whatever may have been his faults, we must admire and esteem his eminent qualities. The splendor of his military, political, and religious achievements have deservedly gained for him the surname of Great, which posterity has conferred upon him.

4. Constantine left the empire divided among his three sons, Constantine II, Constans, and Constantius. In the space of a few years the two former were slain, leaving Constantius, the youngest, sole master of the empire. But his character was marked by weakness, jealousy, and cruelty. During his reign the empire was harassed and weakened by inroads of the barbarians from the north and by incursions of Persians on the eastern provinces. Constantius died, after an unfortunate reign of twenty-four years, A. D. 361.

5. Constantius was succeeded by his cousin Ju'lian, surnamed the Apostate, on account of his having renounced Christianity, in which he had been educated, and relapsed into paganism. He was a man possessed of considerable learning, of great military talents, but the slave of malice

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For what is it memorable?—3. What was the most important event of his reign? Where and when did he die? What is said of his character?—4. How did Constantine leave the empire? What is said of Constantius? Where did he die?—5. By whom was Constantius succeeded? What is said of Julian?

ATLANTIC OCEAN
BRITAIN
Chalons
Loire R.
GAUL
Rhone R.
Milan
Rome
Danube R.
EUXINE SEA
HISPANIA
OR
SPAIN
THRACE
Philippi
Byzantium
Thessalonica
Nicomedia
Nice
ASIA MINOR
Actium
GREECE
AEGEAN SEA
SICILY
Carthage
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Nile R.
ROME
A.D 306 TO A.D. 407.
CHAPTER VIII.
0 100 200 300 400
Scale of Miles

and the most bigoted superstition. He restored the Pagan worship, and impiously attempted to suppress the Christian religion. With a design of falsifying the prediction of our Blessed Savior, he even undertook to reassemble the Jews and rebuild their Temple; but his design is stated, by a number of ancient writers, to have been miraculously defeated by the eruption of fire-balls from the ground, which dislodged the stones, melted the iron instruments, and dispersed the workmen. This royal apostate was slain in a war with the Persians, in the third year of his reign, and the thirty-second of his age, A. D. 363.

6. Julian was succeeded by Jovian, who restored the Christian religion and recalled St. Athana'sius, who had been banished by the order of Julian; but he died suddenly, after a mild and equitable reign of seven months.

Valenti'nian, who was chosen to succeed him, associated with himself in the empire his brother Valens, who governed the eastern provinces; but not yet did the division of the empire into Eastern and Western become fixed and permanent. The barbarians continued to make inroads into different parts of the empire, and the Goths finally obtained a settlement in Thrace. The domestic administration of Valentinian was equitable and wise. His temper, however, was violent. On a certain occasion, when transported with rage, he ruptured a blood-vessel, and expired in a few hours, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, and in the twelfth of his reign.

7. In the east, Val'ens held the sceptre with a weak and inefficient hand. Favoring the Arian heresy, he threw the provinces into confusion and contention, and at the same time exposed his dominions to the inroads of the barbarians. He was defeated and slain in an expedition against the Goths, in the fifteenth year of his reign.

Gra'tian, the son and successor of Valentinian, associated with himself Theodo'sius, afterwards surnamed the Great. The reign of this illustrious monarch was signalized by the complete triumph of Christianity and the downfall of paganism throughout the Roman dominions. By his great military abilities he successfully repelled the encroachments of

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What did he restore? What did he undertake? What is said of his design? How did he die?—6. What is said of Jovian? Who was chosen to succeed him? What is said of the barbarians? How did Valentinian die?—7. What is said of Valens? How did he die? Whom did Gratian associate with himself?

the barbarians, and by his wise administration he strengthened in some measure the empire, which had been already hastening to its ruin. After a splendid reign of eighteen years, Theodosius left his dominions to his two sons, Hono'rius in the West, and Arca'dius in the East, A. D. 395.

8. Theodosius was the last monarch who presided over both divisions of the empire. By all the authors of that period, with the exception of Zos'imus, a Pagan writer, he is represented as a model of every public and private virtue, and worthy of the imitation of all Christian princes. His inclinations were naturally violent; but if he committed any fault contrary to his usual clemency and meekness, he soon repaired it in a manner worthy of his character. On one occasion the populace of Thessalo'nica, in a tumultuous insurrection, stoned their governor to death. Theodosius, on receiving intelligence of this outrage, in a moment of irritation, gave orders for the soldiery to be let loose for three hours on the inhabitants of the city; the commission was executed with so much fury, that seven thousand persons were put to the sword. But no sooner was the great St. Am'brose, Archbishop of Milan, informed of this awful deed, than he declared to the Emperor that he could not admit him into the church until he had atoned, by a public penance, for the enormity of the massacre he had occasioned. Theodosius humbly submitted to the decision of the prelate, and remained excluded from the church for eight months.

9. During the weak reign of Honorius and Arcadius, the barbarians made a successful irruption into the empire, and possessed themselves of several of the most fertile provinces. The Goths, under the famous Al'aric, spread their devastations as far as the walls of Constantinople, and filled all Greece with the terror of their arms. Alaric then penetrated into Italy at the head of a powerful army, but was defeated, with great loss, by the Romans under the command of Sti'licho. After the death of this general, Alaric invaded Italy a second time, and having taken and pillaged several cities, he at length pitched his camp before the walls of Rome. This famous capital, which had for ages been the

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To whom did Theodosius leave his dominions?—8. What is said of Theodosius? Of his inclinations? On one occasion what is related of him? What did St. Ambrose do?—9. What happened during the reign of Honorius and Arcadius? What is said of the Goths? What did Alaric do a second time?

mistress of the world, and had enriched herself by the spoils of vanquished nations, was now reduced to the greatest extremities by famine and pestilence.

10. Rome was finally taken by Alaric, who gave up the city to be plundered by his soldiers, with a charge to spill the blood of none but those whom they found in arms, and to spare all those who took refuge in the churches. The fearful devastation continued for six days, during which the fierce barbarians, notwithstanding the injunctions of the chieftain, indulged their cruelty and ferocity without pity or restraint. Alaric now prepared to invade Sicily and Africa, but death suddenly put an end to all his ambitious projects. The Goths, however, having elected Ataul'phus for their leader, took possession of the southern part of Gaul, and laid the foundation of their kingdom in Spain.

11. A few years after the sacking of Rome by Alaric, the country was again devastated by the Huns, a barbarous people of Scythian origin, under the command of their king, At'tila, styled the scourge of God. Having overrun the Eastern empire, he invaded Gaul with an army of five hundred thousand men; but he was defeated on the plains of Chalons, by the combined forces of the Romans, under Æ'tius, and the Goths, under Theod'oric, with a loss of one hundred and sixty thousand men. The warlike spirit of Attila was checked by this defeat, but not subdued; placing himself again at the head of his army, he shortly afterwards invaded Italy, and having extended his ravages to the gates of Rome, compelled Valentin'ian III to purchase a peace by the payment of immense sums of money, and to give his sister Honoria in marriage. Attila died shortly after this event; and his body is said to have been buried, enclosed in three coffins, the first of gold, the second of silver, and the third of iron. The men who dug the grave were put to death, lest they should reveal the place of his burial.

12. Every circumstance now seemed to hasten the downfall of the empire, which had been long on the verge of ruin. Æ'tius, the only man capable of defending it against its numerous enemies, was slain by the hand of Valentinian himself, on a pretended charge of conspiracy.

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10. What is said of Rome? How long did the devastation continue? What is said of Alaric?—11. By whom was the country next devastated? With how large an army did he invade Gaul? Where and by whom was he defeated? How did Valentinian purchase a peace? What is said of the body of Attila?—12. What is said of Ætius?

Shortly after this event, Valentinian was assassinated in his turn, at the instigation of Petro'nius Max'imus, who was proclaimed Emperor in his stead. The Empress Eudox'ia invited Gen'seric, king of the Van'dals, to avenge the murder of her husband. He eagerly embraced the opportunity, landed in Italy with a numerous army of Moors and Vandals, took the city of Rome, which he gave up to his soldiers to be pillaged for eleven days; and after having destroyed many of the monuments of art and literature which Alaric had spared, and enriched himself with the spoils of the city, he returned to Carthage.

13. From the reign of Valentinian III the Western empire dragged out a precarious existence under nine successive Emperors, for the space of twenty-one years, until its final termination, in 476, by the resignation of Romulus Augustulus, the last of its Emperors, to Odoa'cer, the chief of the Her'uli, who assumed the title of king of Italy. Thus terminated the Roman empire in the West, twelve hundred and twenty-nine years after the building of Rome, and five hundred and seven years after the battle of Actium. Such, observes Goldsmith, was the end of this mighty empire, which had conquered mankind by its arms, and instructed the world by its wisdom; which had risen by temperance and fell by luxury; which had been established by a spirit of patriotism, and sank to ruin when the empire had become so extensive that the term Roman citizen was but an empty name.*

CHAPTER IX

ROMAN INSTITUTIONS AND CUSTOMS.

THE form of the state and the government of Rome varied very much during the successive periods of its existence. It was at first a monarchy. It afterwards became a republic,

* For a fuller account of the Roman Empire, see Fredet's *Modern History*.

How did Valentinian die? What was done by Eudoxia? What is said of Genseric?—13. From the reign of Valentinian, what is said of the Western empire? When did the empire terminate? Who was the last of the emperors? How long had the Roman empire lasted? What does Goldsmith observe?

CHAPTER IX.—1. What is said of the political state? What was it at first?

with a preponderance of aristocratic power, which gradually gave way to the influence of the people. The republican form of government was overthrown by Julius Cæsar, and finally destroyed by Augustus, when it became a despotic monarchy.

2. The kings of Rome were not absolute or hereditary, but limited and elective. They could neither enact laws nor make war or peace, without the consent of the senate and people. They wore a white robe, adorned with stripes of purple or fringed with the same color; their crown was gold, and their sceptre was made of ivory. They sat in the curule chair, which was a chair of state made of ivory, and were attended by twelve lictors, carrying fasces, which were a bundle of rods, with an axe bound in the middle of them.

3. At first the senate consisted of one hundred members, but was afterwards increased to two hundred by Tarquin the elder, and towards the latter days of the republic it consisted of one thousand. The senators were at first nominated by the king, but afterwards chosen by the consuls, and finally by the censors. They usually assembled three times a month, but oftener if special business required it. A decree passed by a majority of the senate, and approved by the Tribunes of the people, was termed a *senatus consultum*. The senators were styled *patres,* or fathers, on account of their age, gravity, and paternal care of the state, and from them the patricians derived their designation. The magistrates of the Roman republic were elective, and previous to their election they were called *candidati,* or candidates, from the white robe which they wore while soliciting the votes of the people.

4. The Consuls had the same badges as the kings, with the exception of the crown; and their authority was nearly equal, except that it was limited to one year. In dangerous conjunctures, they were clothed with absolute power by the solemn decree, "that the consuls take care that the commonwealth sustain no harm." In order to be a candidate for the consulship, the person was required to be forty-three years of age. The Prætors were next in dignity to the Consuls,

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What did it become? By whom was the republican government overthrown?—2. What is said of the kings? What did they wear? By whom were they attended?—3. Of what did the senate consist? How often did they assemble? What was a decree termed? What were senators called?—4. What is said of the consuls? In dangerous conjunctures, with what were they clothed? What age was required? Who were next in dignity?

and in their absence supplied their place; it was their duty to preside at the assemblies of the people, and to convoke the senate upon any emergency.

5. The office of Censor was esteemed more honorable than that of consul, though attended with less power. There were two Censors, chosen every five years; their most important duty was to take, every fifth year, a census of the people, after which they made a solemn lustration, or expiatory sacrifice in the Campus Martius. The Tribunes were officers created to protect the plebeians against the patricians. The Ediles were officers whose duty it was to take care of the public edifices, baths, aqueducts, roads, markets, etc. The Questors were elected by the people to take care of the public revenue. These were of two orders; the military Questors, who accompanied the army, and took care of the payment of soldiers, and the provincial Questors, who attended the Consuls into the provinces and received the taxes and tribute.

6. The assemblies of the people, in order to elect their magistrates, or to decide concerning war or peace, and the like, were called *comitia;* of which there were three kinds, the *curiata, centuriata,* and the *tributa.* The *comitia curiata* consisted of an assembly of the resident Roman citizens, who were divided into thirty curiæ. The *comitia centuriata* were the principal assembly of the people, in which they gave their votes according to the census. They elected, during these *comitia,* the consuls, prætors, and censors; important laws were enacted, and cases of high treason were tried; and they were held in the Campus Martius. The *comitia tributa* were an assembly in which the people voted in tribes, according to their regions and wards; and they were held to create inferior magistrates, to elect certain priests, etc. The *comitia* continued to be assembled for upwards of seven hundred years, until the time of Julius Cæsar, who abridged that liberty, and shared with the people the right of creating the magistrates. Augustus infringed still further on this right, and Tiberius finally deprived the people altogether of the privilege of election.

7. The Priests among the pagan Romans did not form a distinct order of citizens, but were chosen from the most

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5. What is said of the office of censor? Who were the tribunes? Who were the ediles? The questors? Of how many orders were they?—6. What were the assemblies of the people called? Of what did the *comitia curiata* consist? What was done at the *comitia centuriata?* What was the *comitia tributa?* How long did they continue to assemble?—7. What is said of the priests?

THE GLADIATORS.

honorable men of the state. The Pontifices, fifteen in number, were priests who judged all causes relating to religion, regulated the feasts, sacrifices, and all other sacred institutions. The Pontifex Maximus, or High-Priest, was a person of great dignity and authority; he held his office for life, and all other priests were subject to him. The Augurs were fifteen in number, whose duty it was to foretell future events, to interpret dreams, oracles, prodigies, etc. The Haruspices were priests, whose business it was to examine the beasts offered in sacrifice, and from them to divine the success of any enterprise, and to obtain omens of futurity. The Quindecemviri were fifteen priests who had the charge of the Sib'ylline books, which were three prophetic volumes, said to contain the fate of the Roman empire; they were procured during the reign of Tarquin the Proud from a woman of extraordinary appearance. The Vestal Virgins were females, consecrated to the worship of Vesta.

8. The Gladiators were persons who fought with weapons in the public circus or amphitheatre for the amusement of the people. These combats were introduced about four hundred years after the foundation of the city, and became the favorite entertainment. The combatants were at first composed of captive slaves and condemned malefactors; but in the more degenerate period of the empire free-born citizens, and even senators, engaged in this inhuman and disgraceful amusement, in which numbers were destroyed. After the triumph of Trajan over the Dacians, spectacles were exhibited for one hundred and twenty-three days, in which eleven thousand animals of different kinds were killed, and ten thousand gladiators fought.

9. The *toga* and the *tunica* were the most distinguished part of the Roman dress. The *toga,* or gown, worn by the Roman citizen only, was loose and flowing, and covered the whole body; it had no sleeves, and was disposed in graceful folds, which gave the wearer a majestic appearance. The *toga virilis* was assumed by young men at the age of seventeen years. The *tunica,* or tunic, was a white woolen vest, which came down below the knees and was fastened about the waist by a girdle. The dress of the women was similar

Of the Pontifices? Who was the Pontifex Maximus? The Augurs? The Haruspices? The Quindecemviri? The Vestal Virgins?—8. Who were the Gladiators? When were these combats introduced? What is said of them after the triumph of Trajan?—9. What was the *toga?* The *toga virilis?* The *tunica?* What is said of the dress of women?

to that of the men; their tunic, however, was longer and furnished with sleeves; they wore jewels, bracelets, rings, and various other ornaments in great profusion. Hats and caps were worn by the Romans only on journeys, or at the public games; in the city they usually went without any covering on the head.

10. The principal meal among the Romans was their supper, which they took about four o'clock in the afternoon. The breakfast was not a regular meal: it was taken by each one separately and without order, and their dinner was only a slight repast. In the early ages the diet of the Romans consisted chiefly of milk and vegetables; at the table they sat upright on benches; but in the latter days of the republic, when riches were introduced by their conquests, luxury was carried to excess, and they then reclined at their meals on sumptuous couches. These couches were similar to the modern sofa, and generally intended to hold three persons. People so reclined upon them that the head of the one was opposite the breast of the other, and in serving themselves they used only one hand.

11. At Rome, fathers were generally invested with the power of life and death over their children. The exposure of infants was at first somewhat frequent, but at length entirely ceased. Slaves constituted a large portion of the population of Rome. Their lives were at the disposal of their masters. They were not only employed in domestic service, but also in various trades and manufactures. They were considered as mere property, and were publicly sold in the market-place; and if capitally convicted, their punishment was crucifixion. At the feasts of Saturn and at the Ides of August the slaves were allowed great privileges, and masters at those periods waited on them at table.

12. The system of education among the Romans, which was in its highest state of improvement during the reign of Augustus, was much admired. The utmost attention was bestowed on the early formation of the mind and character. The Roman matrons themselves nursed their own children, and next to the care bestowed on their morals, a remarkable degree of attention seems to have been given to their lan-

Of hats, etc.?—10. What was the principal meal? What is said of breakfast? In the early ages, what was the diet of the Romans? How did they sit at table? What is said of these couches?—11. What is said of fathers? Of infants? What is said of slaves?—12. What is said of education? Of the Roman matrons?

guage. From the earliest dawn of reason a regular course of discipline was pursued by some matron of the family, and as the children grew towards manhood they were habituated to all the athletic exercises that could impart agility or grace, and fit them for the profession of arms. Eloquence and the military art were the surest roads to preferment. Oratory, which led to the highest honors in the state, was the favorite study at Rome, and was taught as a science in the public schools. In this art the name of Cicero stands pre-eminent. But Roman prose-writing reaches its highest perfection in the historical works of Livy, Cæsar, and Tacitus. Among the Romans, as with most other nations, poetry appears to have been the earliest intellectual effort. The names that adorn the Roman drama are those of Liv'ius Andron'icus, En'nius, Plau'tus, and Cæcil'ius. In epic poetry, Vir'gil has excelled all other poets of ancient times, with the exception of Homer. Philosophy was first taught in Rome about the end of the third Punic war, and was introduced from Greece. The system of the Stoics was at first most generally received; the philosophy of Aristot'le was afterwards greatly cultivated; but with the introduction of luxury the philosophy of Epicu'rus became fashionable.

CHAPTER X

MYTHOLOGY OF ANCIENT NATIONS.

EXCEPT the Jews, all the nations of antiquity were heathens and idolaters. Their system of religion was called Pol'ytheism, as it acknowledged a plurality of gods, and they worshipped their divinities by various images called idols. The first objects of adoration among the Pagan nations, after they had lost the correct knowledge of the true God, were the heavenly bodies. Hence we find that the names of the principal gods correspond with the names of the chief planets, such as Sat'urn, Ju'piter, Ve'nus, etc. Osi'ris and I'sis, the principal deities among the Egyptians, were identified with the sun and moon. In the process of

What was pursued? What is said of eloquence, etc.? Of oratory? Of poetry?

CHAPTER X.—1. What were all the nations of antiquity? What was their system called? What were the first objects of adoration? What do we find? In the process of time, what did they do?

time, they built temples to the heavenly bodies, as being subordinate agents of the divine power, and by worshipping them, they supposed they would obtain the favor of the Deity. From this they descended to the worship of objects on the earth, as they were thought to represent the stars or the Deity. Thus idolatry arose shortly after the Deluge.

2. In the course of time, adoration was bestowed on those objects which were thought to confer peculiar benefits on man. Thus the Egyptians regarded the Nile as sacred, because by its inundations it fertilized the earth. Again, great heroes and persons, who, during their lives, had been benefactors to the human race, were deified after their death. From these, the ancient Pagans descended to the worship of the most degrading objects, and paid divine honors to beasts, birds, insects, and even to vegetables, such as leeks and onions; moreover, temples were dedicated to evil demons and to the most debasing passions.

3. The Babylonians adored the heavenly bodies, and among them Jupiter was worshipped, under the name of Be'lus, to whom magnificent temples were erected at Babylon. The Ca'naanites and Syrians worshipped Ba'al, Tam'muz, Ma'gog, and As'tarte. Mo'loch was the Saturn of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, to whom human victims, particularly children, were immolated. Baal-peor was the idol of the Mo'abites; his rites were degrading and cruel. Da'gon was the chief god of the Philistines; his figure was a compound of a man and a fish. Among the Celts, the sacred rites were performed in groves dedicated to their gods, to whom human victims were frequently offered; colossal images of wicker-work were filled with human criminals and consumed by fire.

4. According to the Pagan theology, there were twelve chief deities engaged in the creation and government of the universe. Agreeably to this theory, Jupiter, Nep'tune, and Vul'can fabricated the world: Ce'res, Ju'no, and Dia'na animated it; Mer'cury, Ve'nus, and Apol'lo harmonized it; and lastly, Ves'ta, Miner'va, and Mars presided over it with a guardian power, and these twelve were called the celestial deities.

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2. What did the Egyptians regard? Why? To what were divine honors paid?—3. What is said of the Babylonians? What was Moloch? Baal-peor? Dagon? Among the Celts, where were the sacred rites performed?—4. Agreeable to this theory, what is said of the world? What were these twelve called?

Jupiter, who was represented as supreme, and styled the father of the gods and men, was the son of Saturn and Cyb'ele, and was born on Mount Ida, in Crete. He deposed his father, and divided the world between himself and his two brothers, Neptune and Pluto. Neptune had the jurisdiction over the sea, and Pluto that of the infernal regions; but the sovereignty of heaven and earth he reserved to himself. One of his chief exploits was the conquest of the Ti'tans or giants, who are said to have piled mountain upon mountain, in order to scale the heavens. He is generally represented as a majestic personage, seated upon a throne, with a sceptre in one hand and thunderbolts in the other. The heavens trembled at his nod, and he governed all things except the Fates.

5. Apol'lo was the son of Jupiter and Lato'na, and was born on the island of Delos. He presided over music, medicine, poetry, the fine arts, and archery. For his offence in killing the Cy'clops, he was banished from heaven, and obliged to hire himself as a shepherd to Adme'tus, king of Thessaly, in which employment he remained for nine years. His exploits are represented as extraordinary; among others he caused Mi'das to receive a pair of asses' ears, for preferring Pan's music to his; he turned into a violet the beautiful boy Hyacinth, whom he accidentally killed; and changed Daph'ne into a laurel.

6. Mars was the son of Jupiter and Juno. He was the god of war, and the patron of all that is cruel and furious; the horse, the wolf, the magpie, and vulture were offered to him. During the Trojan war, Mars was wounded by Diome'des, and retreating to heaven, he complained to Jupiter that Minerva had directed the weapon of his antagonist. He is represented as an old man, armed and standing in a chariot drawn by two horses called Fright and Terror. His sister Bello'na was his charioteer. Discord, with a torch, went before him in a tattered garment, Anger and Clamor followed.

7. Mer'cury, the son of Jupiter and Mai'a, was the messenger of the gods, and the patron of travellers, shepherds, orators, merchants, thieves, and dishonest persons. He was doubtless some enlightened person, in a remote age, who, on

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What was Jupiter styled? What did he do? What was one of his chief exploits? How is he represented?—5. Who was Apollo? Over what did he preside? From where was he banished? What were his exploits?—6. Who was Mars? Of what was he the god? During the Trojan war what is said of him? How is he represented?—7. What was Mercury?

account of his actions and services, was worshipped after his death. He seems to have been the first who taught the arts of civilization.

Vul'can, the son of Jupiter and Juno, was the god of fire, and the patron of those who wrought in the metallic arts. He was kicked out of heaven by Jupiter, for attempting to deliver his mother from a chain by which she was suspended. He continued to descend for nine successive days and nights, and at length fell upon the isle of Lemnos, but was crippled by the fall. He was the artificer of heaven, and forged the thunderbolts of Jupiter, also the arms of the gods.

8. Juno, styled the queen of heaven, was both the sister and wife of Jupiter. In her character she was haughty, jealous, and inexorable. In her figure she was lofty, graceful, and majestic. Iris, displaying the rich colors of the rainbow, was her usual attendant.

Minerva, the goddess of wisdom, was the most accomplished of all the goddesses, and the only divinity that seems equal to Jupiter. She is said to have instructed man in the arts of shipbuilding, navigation, spinning, and weaving. Her worship was universally established, but at Athens it claimed particular attention. The owl was sacred to her.

Venus, the goddess of love and beauty, was the daughter of Jupiter and Dio'ne, or, as some say, she sprang from the foam of the sea. Her worship was licentious in a high degree, and attended with the most disgraceful ceremonies.

Dia'na was the queen of the woods and the goddess of hunting. She devoted herself to perpetual celibacy, and was attended by eighty nymphs. The poppy was sacred to her.

9. Ce'res, the daughter of Saturn and Cybele, was the goddess of corn and harvest, and the first who taught the cultivation of the earth. The Eleusin'ian Mysteries were celebrated in her honor.

Vesta was the goddess of fire and the guardian of houses. She was represented in a long flowing robe, a veil on her head, a lamp in one hand, and a javelin in the other.

10. Neptune, the brother of Jupiter, was the second in

What did he teach? Who was Vulcan? What is said of him? What did he forge?—8. What was Juno? What was she in her character? In her figure? What was Minerva? What is said of her? What was sacred to her? Who was Venus? What is said of her worship? Who was Diana?—9. Who was Ceres? What were celebrated in her honor? What was Vesta? How was she represented?—10. What was Neptune.

rank among the gods, and reigned over the sea. He is represented seated on a chariot drawn by dolphins and sea-horses; in his hand he holds a trident or sceptre, with three prongs. Oce'anus, a sea god, was called the father of rivers. Tri'ton, also a marine deity, was the son of Neptune and Amphitrite; he was his father's companion and trumpeter. Ne'reus, a sea god, the son of Oceanus, was the father of fifty daughters, who were called Nereides. Pro'teus, the son of Oceanus, could foretell future events, and change himself into any shape.

11. The infernal deities were Pluto and his consort Proser'pine, Plu'tus, Cha'ron, the Furies, Fates, and the three Judges, Mi'nos, Æ'acus, and Rhadaman'thus. Pluto, who exercised dominion over the infernal regions, was the brother of Jupiter. The goddesses all refusing to marry him, on account of his deformity and gloomy disposition, he seized upon Proserpine, the daughter of Ceres, in Sicily, opened a passage through the earth, and carried her to his residence; and having married her made her queen of hell. There were no temples raised to his honor. Plutus, an infernal deity, was the god of riches; he was lame, blind, injudicious, and timorous.

12. Cha'ron was the ferryman who conducted the ghosts across the river Le'the, on their way to Pluto's regions. He is represented as an old man, with white hair, a long beard, and garments defiled with filth, and remarkable for the harshness of his speech and his ill temper. None could enter Charon's boat if they had not received a regular burial; without this, they were supposed to wander a hundred years amidst the mud and slime of the shore. Each ghost paid a small brass coin for his fare.

13. The Furies were three in number, namely: Alec'to, Tisiph'one, and Megæ'ra. They had the faces of women, but their looks were full of terror—they held lighted torches in their hands, and snakes lashed their necks and shoulders. Their office was to punish the crimes of wicked men, and to torment the consciences of secret offenders.

The Fates were three daughters of Jupiter and Themis. Their names were Clotho, Lach'esis, and At'ropos. They

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How is she represented? Who was Oceanus? Triton? Nereus? Proteus?—11. Name the infernal deities. What is said of Pluto? Who was Plutus? What was he?—12. Who was Charon? How is he represented? What is said of those who did not receive a regular burial?—13. Name the Furies. What had they? What was their office? Name the Fates.

decided on the fortunes of mankind. Clotho drew the thread of life. Lachesis turned the wheel; and Atropos cut it with her scissors. The duty of the three judges was to assign the various punishments of the wicked, adapted to their crimes, and to place the good in the delightful realms of Elys'ium.

14. There were many other divinities of various characters, such as Bac'chus, Cupid, the Muses, the Graces, etc. Bacchus, the son of Jupiter and Semele, was the god of wine. His festivals were celebrated by persons of both sexes, who dressed themselves in skins, and ran shouting through the hills and country places; these solemnities were attended with the most disgusting scenes of intoxication and debauchery. The fir, the fig-tree, ivy, and vine were sacred to him.

Cupid, representing the passion of love, was a beautiful winged boy; often with a bandage over his eyes, also with a bow and arrow in his hand, with which to wound the hearts of mortals.

The Muses were nine in number, namely: Calli'ope, who presided over eloquence and heroic and epic poetry; Clio presided over history; Er'ato was the muse of elegiac and lyric poetry; Euter'pe presided over music; Melpom'ene was the inventress and muse of tragedy; Polyhym'nia was the muse of singing and rhetoric; Terpsich'ore presided over dancing; Thali'a, the muse of pastoral and comic poetry; and Ura'nia, who presided over hymns and sacred subjects; and also the muse of astronomy.

15. The Graces were the three daughters of Bacchus and Venus. They were supposed to give to beauty all its charms of attraction. Besides these, there were several rural deities, such as Pan, the god of shepherds and hunters; Sylva'nus, who presided over the woods; Pria'pus, the god of the gardens, and Ter'minus, who was considered as watching over the boundaries of land.

The Si'rens were three fabulous persons, who are said to have had the faces of women, and the lower parts of their bodies like a fish. They had voices so melodious that mariners were often allured and destroyed by them. The

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What did each one do? What was the duty of the judges?—14. Name some of the other divinities. What was Bacchus? What is said of his festivals? What is said of Cupid? What was the number of the Muses, and over what did they preside?—15. Who were the Graces? What was Pan? Sylvanus? Priapus? Terminus? What were the Sirens?

Gor'gons were three sisters, who are said to have had the power of transforming into stones those who looked upon them. The Har'pies were winged monsters, which had the face of a woman, the body and wings of a vulture, claws on the hands and feet, and the ears of a bear.

16. The objects of worship among the ancient nations, particularly among the Greeks and Romans, are said to have numbered thirty thousand. To these temples were erected and sacrifices offered, and for them festivals instituted and games celebrated with a greater or less degree of pomp, according to the degree of estimation in which the deity was held. The most celebrated temples of antiquity were those of Dia'na at Eph'esus, of Apollo, in the city of Mile'tus, of Ceres and Proserpine, at Eleusis, and that of Jupiter Olympus, and the Parthenon of Minerva, at Athens. The famous temple of Diana, at Ephesus, one of the seven wonders of the world, was completed two hundred and twenty years after its foundation. It was four hundred and twenty-five feet in length, and two hundred in breadth; the roof was supported by one hundred and twenty-seven columns, sixty feet high, placed there by so many kings. This temple was burnt by Eros'tratus on the night that Alexander the Great was born; he alleged that he perpetrated the deed merely for the purpose of immortalizing his name in destroying so magnificent a building.

17. Oracles were consulted, particularly by the Greeks and Romans, on all important occasions, and their determinations were held sacred and inviolable. The most celebrated oracles were those of Apollo, at Delphi and Delos; the oracles of Jupiter, at Dodo'na; and that of Tropho'nius, where future events were made known to those who sought to know the will of the gods. The responses were generally delivered by a priestess, who was supposed to be divinely inspired; but usually in verse, and couched in very ambiguous language, so that one answer would agree with various and sometimes opposite events. It must, however, be confessed that sometimes the answers of the oracles were substantially correct, a fact which is proved by many passages in ancient history; but it is a question among the learned, whether the answers of the oracles should be ascribed

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The Gorgons? The Harpies?—16. What was the number of objects of worship? Name the most celebrated temples. What is said of the temple of Diana at Ephesus? By whom was it burnt?—17. What is said of Oracles? Which were the most celebrated? How were the responses given? What is a question among the learned?

to the operations of demons, or only to the imposture of men. The best established opinion is, that demons were the real agents in the oracles, although we find many instances in Grecian history where the Delphic priestess suffered herself to be corrupted by presents, and gave an answer to suit the will or to gratify the passions or inclinations of those who came to consult her. Much of the knowledge of the priestess was derived from those who consulted her; these brought tidings from all parts of the Hellenic world and even from countries beyond.

18. There is one fact, however, deserving of notice, namely, that the responses of the oracles ceased when the Christian religion began to be preached—not on a sudden, but in proportion as its salutary doctrines became known to mankind. Tertul'lian, in one of his Apologies, challenges the Pagans to make the experiment, and consents that a Christian should be put to death if he did not oblige the oracles to confess themselves devils. Lactan'tius informs us that every Christian could silence the oracles by merely making the Sign of the Cross. When Julian, the Apostate, went to Daphne, near Antioch, to consult Apollo, the god, notwithstanding all the sacrifices offered to him, continued mute, and only recovered his speech to answer those who inquired the cause of his silence, and ascribed it to the interment of certain Christian bodies in the neighborhood.

19. The ancients generally inculcated the belief in a future state of existence, believing that the virtuous would be happy in Elysi'um, or Paradise, and that the wicked would be miserable in Tar'tarus, or Hell. Of hell, they drew the most gloomy and horrible picture. It was a place where men, who had been notorious for their crimes while on earth, were punished with a variety of tortures. On the other hand, the prospect of Elysium was described as beautiful and inviting in the highest degree. In that delightful region there was no inclement weather, but mild winds constantly blew from the ocean to refresh the inhabitants, who lived without care or anxiety; the sky was perpetually serene, and the fertile earth produced, twice a year, delicious fruit in abundance.

What is the best established opinion?—18. What fact deserves notice? Of what does Lactantius inform us? What is related of Julian?—19. Of what did the ancients inculcate the belief? Of hell, what picture did they draw? How was Elysium described?

MIDDLE AGES
A.D.476 to 1453.
0 75 150 225 300
Scale of Miles
RUSSIA
SCYTHIA
NORWAY
SWEDEN
BALTIC
GOTHS
GERMAN
OCEAN
IRELAND
ENGLAND
York
Cambridge
Oxford
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
ANGLES
SAXONS
NORMANDY
Vistula R.
BURGUNDIANS
VANDALS
GERMANY
Cologne
Paris
Tours
Blois
Cité
Cluny
LOMBARDY
AUSTRIA
GAUL
Arles
Ferrara
Ravenna
Salamanca
Lisbon
SPAIN
Rome
Naples
MEDITERRANEAN
SEA
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
BULGARIA
Adrianople
Constantinople
TURKEY
GREECE
Sea of Dardanelles
ASIA MINOR
CASPIAN SEA

MODERN HISTORY

BOOK V

VARIOUS periods have been adopted by different historians for the beginning of Modern History. Some have chosen the establishment of the Western empire, under Charlemagne, A. D. 800; others again have taken the downfall of the Western empire of the Romans, A. D. 476, while the majority assume the commencement of the Christian era. That portion of Modern History styled the Middle Ages, will first claim our attention.

CHAPTER I

THE MIDDLE AGES.

THE period intervening between the fall of the Western empire of the Romans and the destruction of the Eastern empire is usually called the Middle Ages,* and by some bigoted authors, the Dark Ages. The great majority of writers in our language unjustly represent Europe, during those ages, as sunk in ignorance and barbarism. How far they are correct in their estimate, we leave the student to judge, after giving separately a summary view of these ages.

2. **The Sixth Century.**—During the early part of the preceding century the Roman empire of the West had been rapidly declining, until its final overthrow in the year 476. The invasion of the northern hordes of Goths, Vandals, and Huns, under Alaric, Attila, and other leaders, had swept

* Some historians regard the ninth, tenth and eleventh centuries only as the Middle Ages.

CHAPTER I.—1. What period has been denominated the Middle Ages?—2. What is said of the early part of the preceding century?

from the face of Italy almost every trace of civilization, and settled on its once fertile plains a fierce and haughty race of barbarians. Under the oppressive reign of Anasta'sius in the East, insurrections prevailed in the provinces, and sedition at Constantinople itself. The empire was assailed from without by the Persians, Bulgarians, Arabians, and the barbarous tribes from the North. Under his successors, Jus'tin and Justin'ian, an uninterrupted state of war continued to rage in different parts of the empire. Italy and the West had been severed from it towards the close of the preceding century. After a long and sanguinary contest, during which Rome was repeatedly taken and retaken by the contending powers, Italy was reconquered by Belisa'rius and Nar'ses, the generals of Justinian.

3. In Gaul, the Burgundians, Franks, and Visigoths were almost incessantly at war. In Africa and in Spain, the Goths and Vandals were constantly engaged in civil broils with each other, or were at war with the Romans; and Britain, during the whole of this century, struggled for its liberty with the Saxons, Jutes, and Angles, who eventually established in the island a kingdom called the Hep'tarchy. In the violence and general confusion that prevailed throughout Christendom, we may easily imagine what must have been the decay of science and literature. The rude barbarians, who had subjugated nations more polished than themselves, were indebted only to their courage for success, and valued no other arts than those of managing, with effect, the buckler and the sword. Literature and other fine arts they esteemed beneath the dignity of warriors who had subdued the kingdoms of the West. Whatever of learning survived the wreck of barbarian devastation found an asylum in the monastic institutions, and in those towns where a Bishop held his residence, at which schools of literature and theology were usually established.

4. Among the writers of the sixth century, the following names are eminently distinguished: St. Gregory the Great, Pope; St. Cæsa'rius, Archbishop of Arles; Evag'rius the

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What had the invasion, etc., swept from the face of Italy? What prevailed in the East? Under Justin and Justinian, what continued? What is said of Italy?—3. What prevailed in Gaul? In Africa and Spain? In England? In this violent confusion, what may we infer? What is said of the rude barbarians? Where did learning find an asylum?—4. Name some of the distinguished writers of the sixth century.

Syrian, an ecclesiastical historian; St. Fulgen'tius, an African Bishop; St. Gregory of Tours, who in ten books wrote the History of the Franks; and also St. John Climac'us.

5. **The Seventh Century.**—At the commencement of this century, Pho'cas, a tyrant marked by almost every vice that can degrade humanity, and without a redeeming virtue, occupied the throne at Constantinople. While he amused himself with the oppression of his subjects, the barbarians overran the provinces of the empire, and filled them with carnage and desolation. Under the reign of Herac'lius, his successor, the state was delivered from external foes; he wrested the provinces from the hands of the Persians, and spread the terror of his arms over the East. But his vast dominions had been depopulated by the continual wars which the empire had to sustain against the ravages of the barbarians, and by the absolute and arbitrary power of cruel and avaricious governors, while that portion of his subjects which still remained groaned under the weight of oppression.

6. Such was the state of things when Mohammedanism rose, and swept like an impetuous torrent over the countries of the East, bearing down before it every monument of art and every trace of civilization. As the conquerors of the West had formerly esteemed no other arts than those of arms, so the new race of ignorant warriors in the East, equally blind to the advantages which science bestows, in the first transports of success destroyed every trace of literature and every vestige of art. Such was the rapidity of their conquests, that before the end of this century they had established their dominion over Persia, Syria, Asia Minor, Arabia, and Egypt. After the taking of Alexandria, the celebrated library of that city, containing from five to seven hundred thousand volumes, was consigned to the flames.

7. The flames of war still continued to rage on the plains of Italy, where the restless Lombards resisted every effort of the Eastern Emperors to reëstablish their authority. France was portioned out into provinces, nominally governed by kings, who abandoned themselves to the pursuit of pleasure, and indulged in effeminacy and sloth, and left the administration of the government to a minister, styled the

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5. Who now occupied the throne of Constantinople? Under the reign of Heraclius, what was done?—6. In this state of things, what arose? What did the new race of warriors do? After the taking of Alexandria, what was done?—7. Where did the flame of war still continue? What is said of France?

Mayor of the palace. Spain was in a state of anarchy caused by civil broils. No less than fourteen kings reigned in that country during this century, and of this number one-half were dethroned, or fell by the hand of some unprincipled usurper.

The general state of science and polite arts continued to decline during this century. While in the East religious fanaticism had absorbed all the faculties of the human mind, in the West continual and sanguinary wars had left but little leisure for the cultivation of science and letters.

8. **The Eighth Century.**—The empire of the Ca'liphs continued to spread, and by the beginning of this century it extended from Canton, in China, to the southern extremity of Spain. The Emperors of Constantinople, during this period, without attending to the disorders of the state, labored industriously either to enforce some erroneous doctrine regarding Faith, or more laudably to restore tranquillity to the Church. Philip'picus was scarcely seated on the throne when he turned his whole attention towards the establishment of Monoth'elitism. Leo, the Isau'rian, and Constantine, his successor, was equally industrious in prohibiting the veneration paid to sacred images in the churches, while the Empress Irene zealously labored to reëstablish it. The edicts of Leo against sacred images caused not only commotion in the East, but also produced insurrections in Italy, which the Lombards turned to their own advantage.

9. Under their king, Astol'phus, they possessed themselves of the exarchate of Raven'na, which, until this period, had remained under the dominion of the Eastern Emperors, and subsequently undertook the conquest of Rome. When the imperial city was reduced to the last extremity, Pope Zach'ary applied for aid to Pep'in, the son of Charles Martel'. That hardy and enterprising prince readily responded to the call, hastened to Italy, delivered Rome and its territories from the power of the Lombards; and with a noble generosity bestowed the territory thus acquired by his arms on the Sovereign Pontiff, and raised the head of the Christian Church to the rank of a temporal ruler.

10. Literature, at the early part of this century, was still in a state of great neglect; but the flame which had been

Of Spain? What is said of the state of literature?—8. What is said of the empire of the Caliphs? Of the emperors of Constantinople? Of Philippicus? Of Leo?—9. To whom did Pope Zachary apply for aid? What did Pepin do?—10. What is said of literature at the early part of this century?

TOMBS OF THE CALIPHS, CAIRO, EGYPT.

almost extinguished began once more to illuminate the East. At the birth of Mohammedanism, the Mussulmans declared war indiscriminately against all who refused to embrace their superstitions, and death was the usual portion of the vanquished. But after the first transports of their enthusiasm had subsided, they mitigated the cruelty of this impolitic rule, and for fear of changing their conquered territories into one vast wilderness, they granted a kind of toleration to all religions, with the exception of gross idolatry. This indulgence caused many who had not lost all taste for the arts and sciences to settle in the dominion of the Caliphs. During the reign of the Ommiades, and especially of the famous Almanzor, every encouragement was given to letters and learned men.

Thus, while the Emperors of Constantinople were wholly employed in compelling their subjects to adopt their own respective innovations in religion, the Saracen Caliphs were endeavoring to diffuse a taste for science throughout their dominions.

11. In France the arts and sciences, which had taken refuge in the monasteries, were, during the early part of this century, banished from these sacred asylums. The continued hostilities in which the country was involved filled every place with tumult and devastation. Ecclesiastical property was distributed among favorite chieftains, who, instead of providing for the subsistence of a sufficient number of clergy to serve the churches, filled the monasteries with their soldiery; and the monks and clergymen, thus compelled to live with the military, gradually imbibed their spirit. Ignorance and vice, as a natural consequence, became almost general, not only in France, but also throughout the continent of Europe, towards the middle of this century. Ireland and England were almost exclusively the seats of learning during this period.

12. Fortunately for the cause of literature, Charlemagne at this time was called to fill the throne of France. This illustrious prince formed the noble design of removing the barriers which prevented the diffusion of knowledge, and of furnishing his subjects with the means of instruction. He

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What did the Mussulmans declare? After the first transports, what did they mitigate? What did this indulgence cause?—11. In France, what is said of the arts, etc.? What is said of the monks and clerical men? Of ignorance and vice? Of Ireland, etc.?—12. Who was called to the throne of France? What is said of this prince?

established schools in all the principal cities and towns throughout his vast dominions for the gratuitous education of children and of the ignorant; he exhorted the Bishops and Abbots again to establish schools and universities at their respective cathedrals and abbeys, for the laudable purpose of teaching the liberal arts and sciences; he invited into France the most celebrated scholars of the age, such as Al'cuin, of York, Clement and others, who were employed with considerable success in the literary regeneration of Europe.

13. **The Ninth Century.**—The Saracen Caliphs continued to patronize learning, particularly the science of astronomy. This produced a great number of proficients in that beautiful and eminently useful branch of knowledge. Many also applied themselves to the study of judicial astrology, while others distinguished themselves in various other departments of literature. On the other hand, under the Greek Emperors, the liberal arts were much neglected and despised. Leo, the Isaurian, had destroyed everything favorable to literature, and learned men were consigned to obscurity and contempt.

14. Towards the middle of this century, however, we find a taste for literature manifesting itself again among the Greeks. It was owing to the efforts of Amon, the Saracen Caliph, to attract Leo, the Philosopher, to his court, that the Emperor Theoph'ilus discovered the treasure he possessed in that great man. He encouraged his labors, and intrusted him with the charge of the public instruction. Bardes, who governed under the Emperor Michael, undertook, with the aid of Pho'tius, to revive learning in the Eastern empire by establishing professors of the various sciences and polite arts, and attaching to their functions honorary privileges and pecuniary compensations.

15. In the West, sacred and profane learning continued to flourish in the numerous schools established by Charlemagne, until the dreadful disorders of succeeding reigns partially banished the light of science from the kingdom. After the death of that illustrious monarch, his vast dominions were inherited by Louis the Pious, who divided them among his three sons, who seem to have inherited none of the noble qualities of their father. They were continually engaged in hostilities with one another, while their kingdoms were rent

What did he establish? What is said of Alcuin, etc.?—13. What is said of the Caliphs? Of the liberal arts under the Greek Emperors?—14. Towards the middle of this century, what do we find? What did Bardes undertake?—15. In the West, what is said of learning? In what were they continually engaged?

with civil discords, and their provinces were inundated on every side by the irruotions of Danes, Nor'mans, and Sar'acens.

16. Amidst the evils that ensued, we are not surprised that ignorance again prevailed, particularly among the nobles, who, following exclusively the profession of arms, had but little time to attend to literary pursuits, and even boasted of their want of knowledge. Hence we find that many of the deeds and legal documents of this period terminated in the following words: "And the aforesaid lord has declared that he did not know how to sign his name, owing to his being a nobleman." But while literature was neglected on the part of the nobility, the most strenuous efforts were made to keep alive the sacred flame of learning, and to diffuse instruction among the people, by the clergy and prelates of the Church. By a reference to the decrees of the Councils, during this period, it will be seen that the Bishops were unremitting in their zeal for the extension of knowledge. In the Council of Toul, held in 859, princes and Bishops are earnestly recommended to establish public schools, for the purpose of teaching sacred science and polite literature. In all the monasteries and episcopal houses, schools were established, in which a relish for study and for literary acquirements was carefully preserved. Besides the study of the Sacred Scriptures, the students in these institutions were taught what were termed the seven liberal arts; namely, grammar, logic, rhetoric, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music.

17. In England the incursions of the Danes and the ravages of civil war had erased almost every monument of art, and banished from the land every trace of learning. The monasteries were burned, the monks murdered or dispersed, the libraries and schools destroyed. Ignorance and vice necessarily followed. Happily for the island, at this moment of its greatest depression, Alfred the Great was called to the throne. Having delivered his country from the dominion of the Danes, and driven the barbarous invaders from his shores, he turned his whole attention towards removing the evils which their ravages had caused.

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16. Amidst the evils that ensued, what is said? How were many of the documents of this period written? By whom were the most strenuous efforts made? In the Council of Toul, what was recommended? In the monasteries, what were established? What were the students taught?—17. In England, what had the incursions of the Danes erased? Who was called to the throne? To what did he turn his attention?

18. To effect this object he established throughout his dominions schools, in which were taught all the useful branches. He founded the University of Oxford,* invited from foreign countries men eminent for their learning, encouraged architecture, and laid the foundation of the British navy, which for so many centuries after ruled the empire of the sea. To this illustrious Catholic prince, England is indebted for many of the valuable laws which at present form the fairest feature in her constitution.

Although this age was not productive of many eminent scholars, still it has left behind it a few names that would do honor to literature even at this day. Lu'pus, Abbot of Ferrieres, a writer of this century, is admitted by all impartial critics to have been a man of profound erudition, and few ages can boast of a more distinguished scholar and statesman than Alfred the Great, of England.

19. **The Tenth Century.**—The Greek empire, during this age, was distracted by a series of revolts and unnatural conspiracies. The Emperor, Romanus, was dethroned by his son Constantine. Constantine, in his turn, was deprived of his crown and his life by his own ungrateful son, who, at the instigation of his wife, administered a cup of poison to his royal father. The parricide did not long enjoy the fruits of his impiety. The army declared their general, Niceph'orus, Emperor, who, after a short reign, was carried off by the hand of conspiracy, in order to make room for Zimis'ces. This last Emperor fell a victim to the treachery of his chief minister, Bas'il, who, dreading the punishment which his crimes had merited, contrived the death of his sovereign.

20. During these revolutions of the state, literature was not entirely neglected; some of the Emperors gave considerable encouragement to science, and invited from other countries men of talents to teach at Constantinople. We do not, however, find that the Greek empire, during the tenth century, produced any distinguished writers. Learning was still patronized by the Saracen Caliphs and by the Sultans, who had usurped a great part of their authority.

* Some antiquarians deny to Alfred the honor of having established the University of Oxford.

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18. To effect this object, what did he do? Who was a writer of this age?—19. What is said of the Greek Empire during this age? Of Romanus?—20. During these revolutions, what was the state of literature? By whom was learning still patronized?

Many of their learned men were employed in translating into the Ar'abic tongue the writings of the ancient philosophers, while others applied themselves with much diligence to the study of the translations already published in the preceding age.

21. Italy, during this century, was greatly distracted by civil dissensions, and finally reunited to the Germanic empire by Otho I. France was exposed to the incursions of the Normans, in whose favor Charles the Simple ceded a part of Neus'tria, which from them was called Normandy. Tumult and disorder continued to convulse the state until Hugh Cap'et was raised to the throne. The Feudal System, during this period, had risen to its greatest power. During the preceding century the vassals of the crown had been gradually increasing in power, so that at the present period we find them possessed of almost unlimited authority. Each nobleman had his fortress and his castle, situated on some commanding eminence which overlooked the surrounding country. Here, secure from violence, he oppressed the people, laid all travellers and merchants under contribution, and imposed upon them arbitrary tolls by way of tribute, and not infrequently set at defiance the authority of his sovereign.

22. In Germany the same state of things prevailed. The nobles were continually in arms against each other or at war with the sovereign. Nor was England more favored than the nations on the continent; it was either harassed by new incursions of the Danes or involved in domestic feuds. During these evil times the monasteries were almost the only asylums of learning. Here, in the silence of the cloister, remote from the turmoil of the camp, the peaceful monks continued to cultivate a taste for science and classical literature. This century produced several men eminent for their talents; among these St. Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne, and St. Dun'stan, in England, were particularly distinguished.

23. **The Eleventh Century.**—In the Eastern empire, during the greater part of this century, treachery, poison, and parricide were the usual means employed in the advancement or deposition of an Emperor. Hence we may easily form an

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In what were their learned men employed?—21. What is said of Italy? Of France? Of the Feudal System? What had each nobleman? What did he do?—22. In Germany, what prevailed? What is said of England? Of the monasteries during these times? What did this century produce?—23. What is said of the Eastern Empire during this century?

idea of the disorders of the government and the deplorable condition of the people, who were, moreover, daily exposed to the incursions of the Bulgarians, Saracens, and Turks. The arts and sciences were wholly neglected until towards the middle of the century, when the study of letters began again to revive. Grammar and philosophy, however, were cultivated with much care.

24. Literature continued to meet with patronage among the Saracens, who, after subjecting Persia, Syria, and Palestine, granted protection to learned men and founded several academies. The extraordinary power exercised by the Sovereign Pontiffs, even over temporal princes, during this and several succeeding centuries, is no doubt a matter of surprise to the reader at the present day. Of this subject I will speak more at large under the head of Italy; suffice it to say, at present, that this power, invested in the Pope, although it may appear derogatory to the rights of princes, had, nevertheless, a salutary influence in correcting the abuses of the times and in restraining the lawless passions of sovereigns. Fewer acts of violence were committed, the churches and monasteries were more respected, order and discipline better observed; the sciences were cultivated in peace; public academies were opened for all who wished to improve themselves; the schools were crowded with students full of noble emulation, which diffused itself through all ranks and conditions of life.

25. During the eleventh century the method of Alcuin was adopted in the schools under the name of Triv'ium and Quadriv'ium. The Trivium included grammar, logic, and dialectics, while arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music constituted the Quadrivium. But as the number of scholars multiplied, the works of Aristot'le and Av'içen'na, with the categories attributed to St. Augustine, were very generally studied in the West. The most remarkable event towards the close of this century was the commencement of the Crusades, or sacred wars undertaken for the recovery of Palestine

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Of the arts, etc.? What is said of grammar?—24. Where did literature still meet with patronage? What will no doubt be a subject of surprise? What is observed of this power? What is said of the sciences? Of public academies?—25. During the eleventh century, what method was adopted in the schools? What did the Trivium include? What constituted the Quadrivium? As the number of scholars multiplied, what was studied in the West? What was the most remarkable event of this century?

from the dominion of the Turks, A. D. 1096. This century, with the latter part of the preceding, was distinguished for several important and useful inventions.*

26. **The Twelfth Century.**—At the commencement of this century anarchy and confusion reigned in the East. The new states which the Christians had established in Palestine were subject to continual war; the Sultans were constantly in the field, to arrest the progress of the Crusaders. The Emperors of Constantinople, unable to repel the invasion of the Saracens, and jealous of the success of the Crusaders, tampered with both, without being able to take advantage either of their victories or defeats.

The state of literature, notwithstanding this unfavorable aspect of things, was gradually improving. In the midst of the confusion of war, the Caliphs and Sultans, being generally men of learning, paid much attention to the advancement of science. The schools and academies established throughout the Mussulman empire were exceedingly flourishing.

27. The Greeks were somewhat improved by their frequent intercourse with the Saracens. The emulation which had been excited in the West during the preceding century, the patronage of princes, combined with the propagation of the Religious Orders of Citeaux, Cluni, and the Carthusians, greatly multiplied the number of schools and academies. Every abbey and almost every monastery was an institution for the diffusion of literary and religious knowledge. The art of writing was cultivated with greater application and success during this than at any former period; and the manuscripts which have descended to the present time are standing monuments of the exquisite perfection to which that art was carried during the twelfth and succeeding centuries. The University of Padua and that of Paris were founded about the year 1180. The writers of this age most deserving of notice are the great St. Bernard, Peter, Abbot of Cluni, Peter of Blois, and Pope Innocent III.

28. **The Thirteenth Century.**—The East, at the beginning of this century, was occupied by the Mo'guls, Saracens, and

* See Chronological Table.

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26. At the commencement of this century, what reigned in the East? What is said of the Sultans? Of the Emperors of Constantinople? Of the state of literature? Of schools, etc.?—27. What is said of the Greeks? What did the emulation, etc., do? What is said of the art of writing? What universities were founded? Who were writers of this age?—28. What is said of the East?

Turks, among whom an almost uninterrupted series of wars continued to rage. Genghis-Khan and his successors reduced a considerable portion of the Saracen and Turkish empires; while the princes of the West took Constantinople, and established there a Latin Emperor, whose successors swayed the Greek sceptre until the middle of this age. The Greek Emperors, after their restoration, were continually harassed by the Turks, who finally reduced a considerable portion of the Grecian provinces.

29. In the West, Germany was convulsed by the factions of competitors for the empire. Otho was at length acknowledged by the people, and crowned by Pope Innocent III, after a solemn promise to protect the patrimony of the Pontiff. The Emperor, however, on account of some disagreement with the Romans, proceeded to avenge himself by invading and ravaging the territories of the Church. Upon this he was deposed by a Council assembled by the Pope, while the princes of Germany elected Frederick II in his place. Otho was not disposed to yield without a contest, and thus involved the empire in all the horrors of civil war. Frederick was finally successful; and the death of his rival left him in quiet possession of the throne.

30. France was either involved in hostilities with England, or engaged in calamitous warfare with the Albigen'ses, who had desolated her southern provinces. Consequently, the West was still the theatre of discord and civil dissension. Science was still patronized by the Moguls, and learning continued to flourish throughout their vast empire; while, on the other hand, the conquests of the Turks had greatly tended to retard it within the limits of their jurisdiction. Some few men of learning flourished among the Greeks, but most of their efforts were made in attempts to justify their schism, and to refute the writings of the Latin theologians. In the West, science, which hitherto had been chiefly confined to the abbeys and monasteries, now burst forth from its confinement, and enlightened by its rays the whole face of Europe. The great Universities of Naples, Vienna, Salamanca, Cambridge, and Lisbon, institutions of which Europe is proud at the present day, were founded during this century. Among

What did the princes of the West do?—29. In the West, what was Germany? What did the emperor do? What was done by the council? What was the result of the civil war?—30. What is said of France? What is said of science in the West? What universities were founded?

the scholars of this age the following were the most distinguished: Roger Bacon, an eminent English monk and philosopher; Matthew Paris, an accurate English historian, also distinguished as an orator and poet; the names of Alber'tus Mag'nus, St. Bonaventure, and St. Thomas Aqui'nas stand preëminent as writers on philosophy and theology.*

31. **The Fourteenth Century.**—The fourteenth century beheld the rise and progress of the savage and warlike nation of Ot'tomans, who were destined, at a future period, to destroy the last vestige of Roman power. Hitherto the conquests of the Turks had been confined to Asia, but under their celebrated chief, Or'can, they crossed the straits of Dardanelles, and carried their victorious arms into the plains of Europe; they took several important towns, and finally made the city of Adriano'ple the seat of their empire. The Greek Emperors, alarmed at the progress of the Turks, and feeling sensibly the want of support from the West, used the most strenuous efforts to effect the reunion of the Greek with the Latin Church; but the long-settled prejudice of their subjects placed an insuperable barrier to all their endeavors.

32. Notwithstanding the distracted state of Christendom during the greater part of this century, occasioned by wars between England and France, Germany and Italy, and the great schism of the West, science continued to advance and to gain a liberal support in every part of Europe.

Such is a concise view of the condition of society and the state of literature during that period denominated the Middle Ages.†

33. A few of the most remarkable institutions which characterize the history of Europe and the state of society during the Middle Ages were the Feudal System, Chivalry, the Crusades, and Monastic Establishments. We shall speak of the first three under their proper heads. As centres of piety

* See "Biography of Eminent Personages," at the close of this volume, for sketches of St. Thomas Aquinas, Roger Bacon, and Albertus Magnus.

† For a fuller account of the Middle Ages, see Father Gazeau's *History of the Middle Ages.*

Who were the most distinguished scholars of this age?—31. What did this century behold? What is said of the conquests of the Turks? Of the Greek Emperors?—32. What is said of literature during this century?—33. What are some of the most remarkable institutions, etc.? Which deserve a passing notice?

and learning, the monasteries were a blessing to the society of the Middle Ages.

34. In these excellent institutions, particularly the larger monasteries and abbeys, schools of instruction were established, in which a taste for the classics and the more useful branches of study were carefully preserved. In all, the monks had their various duties assigned them. While numbers were employed in transcribing books for the use of the Church and schools, others were engaged in teaching in the academies attached to these institutions, while others again were occupied in manual labor, in attending to the duties of the farm, the garden, and the like, having at the same time certain hours set apart for devotional exercises. Even at meals, one of the monks read aloud while the others were silently eating.

35. Previous to the discovery of the art of printing, books were extremely scarce, and only procured at an immense price; this circumstance, of course, tended materially to retard the progress of science. The labor of transcribing a work was great, and the process tedious, hence the multiplication of books was extremely slow. The monasteries, however, supplied in some measure this deficiency, always employing a number of their inmates in the laudable work of transcribing books. The good monks not only transcribed such books as were immediately used in the Church and the schools, but also carefully transcribed and prescribed the writings of ancient authors; hence, whatever we have of ancient literature, has been chiefly transmitted to us through the medium of the monasteries.

36. The monks, in truth, were the teachers, the missionaries, the printers and publishers, and the real civilizers of the Middle Ages. They converted the rude, warlike barbarian, and gradually moulded him into a Christian. They were the fathers of the poor. They were the guardians of knowledge, and taught Christian Europe how to read. From the hands of a monk England received its first book and its first library. In short, during the early and middle ages we look to the monastery for nearly all that was greatest in virtue and learning. Who can mention the names of St. Benedict, St. Co-

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What are they admitted to have been?—34. In these institutions, what were established? What were the duties of the monks?—35. Previous to the discovery of printing, what were scarce? What did the monasteries supply? What books did the monks transcribe?—36. What is said of the monks as teachers and civilizers?

lumbkille, St. Gregory the Great, St. Augustine, the Venerable Bede, St. Anselm, St. Bernard, and St. Thomas Aquinas without feelings of grateful veneration?

CHAPTER II

SARACEN EMPIRE

THE RISE OF MOHAMMEDANISM, SARACEN CONQUESTS, ETC.

THE Saracens were a people who inhabited the northwestern part of Arabia. Like the other tribes of the country, they traced their descent from Ishmael, and professed a mixed religion, made up of Judaism and idolatry. They had but little intercourse with the neighboring nations, except when they occasionally sold their services, as mercenaries, to those who paid them the most liberal reward, and were usually noted for their courage and bravery. Many of the Christian sects, in order to avoid persecution, had taken refuge in Arabia, and towards the end of the sixth century Christianity prevailed in some parts of the country.

2. Such was the state of Arabia when Mahom'et or Moham'med, the famous prophet, appeared. He was a native of Mec'ca, and was born about the year 570. At the age of forty he assumed the quality of a prophet, and pretended that he had received a divine commission to restore the Jewish and Christian religions, which, he maintained, had greatly fallen from their primitive purity. Upon this foundation he established his system of religion, which consisted of a compound of Judaism, Christianity, and his own fanciful notions. Being subject to fits of epilepsy, he falsely attributed them to the visits of the Archangel Gabriel, by whom he pretended he was taught, but whose presence he said he was unable to bear without trances and convulsions.

3. As Mohammed was a man of no education, unable even to read or write, the Ko'ran, or Alcoran, the book which contains the principles of his doctrine, was compiled with the assistance of a Jewish Rab'bi and a Nesto'rian monk. The

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CHAPTER II.—1. Who were the Saracens? What had they? What is said of the Christian sects?—2. When and where was Mohammed born? What did he pretend? Being subject to fits, to what did he attribute them?—3. How was the Koran compiled?

Koran consists chiefly of some beautiful sentences taken from Holy Writ, with a strange medley of the most absurd ideas, without connection or design, though expressed in a lofty and animated style. The two leading principles of his religion were: "There is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet." He taught that others, at various times, such as Abraham, Moses, and Jesus Christ, had been divinely commissioned to teach mankind, but that he himself was the last and the greatest of the prophets.

4. He propagated his religion by the sword, and stimulated the courage of his followers by the promise of a martyr's crown in a paradise of delights, to every one who should fall in battle. It was inculcated as a fundamental doctrine that, "to fight for the faith was an act of obedience to God." Hence the Mohammedans styled their fierce and bloody ravages Sacred Wars. They termed their religion Islam or Islamism, and called themselves Mussulmans or Moslems, that is, true believers.

Mohammed, at the commencement of his efforts, had but little success in making proselytes. His first converts were his wife Kadija, his slave Zeid, his father-in-law A'bubeker, and his cousin, the famous Ali. These, with ten others, were all whom he had persuaded to acknowledge the truth of his mission at the expiration of three years.

5. A popular tumult being raised against him at Mecca, he was obliged to retire in order to save his life. He fled, in disguise, to Medina. This event, called the Hegi'ra, or the Flight, marks the beginning of the Mohammedan era, corresponding to A. D. 622. He was received at Medi'na in triumph, and there assumed the sacerdotal and regal office. Shortly after this he placed himself at the head of an army of his followers, and commenced to propagate his religion, according to his maxim, by the sword. He first attacked the caravans which passed through Arabia, for the purpose of trade, and thus enriched his soldiers with the booty. Encouraged by this success, he took the city of Mecca, which he entered in triumph, about the year 629. From this period

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Of what does the Koran chiefly consist? What were the two leading principles of his religion? What did he teach?—4. How did he propagate his religion? What was inculcated as a fundamental principle? What were his ravages called? What did they term themselves? Who were his first converts?—5. What obliged him to retire? What is this event called? How was he received at Medina? Shortly after this, what did he do?

until his death he was constantly in the field. He fought in person nine battles, subdued all Arabia, extended his conquest to Syria, and after a career of victory, died at Medina, at the age of sixty-three, ten years after his flight from Mecca to that city.

6. One of the principal causes of the success which attended the arms of Mohammed was the inflexible severity he exercised towards the vanquished. It was his usual practise to propose to those whom he threatened with war three conditions, namely, the adoption of his religions system, the payment of a tribute, or an appeal to the sword. If they chose the latter, no quarter was granted to them; only the women, the children, and aged persons were spared, and reduced to slavery. Another cause of his success was the absolute assurance of future bliss which he held out to his followers, whereby they were rendered equally happy, either to conquer or to die on the field of battle for the propagation of their religion.

7. Mohammed was succeeded by his father-in-law, A'bubeker, a man of great repute among the Arabs. He is styled the first Caliph, a title which signifies in Arabic successor or vicar. He, pursuing a career of conquest similar to that of his predecessor, invaded Syria and took the cities of Bostra, Palmyra, and Damascus; the latter city was taken after a siege of six months, and most of its inhabitants inhumanly put to the sword by order of Kaled, who was at that time the commander of the Saracen forces. Abubeker died in the third year of his reign, and the sixty-third of his age, having previously named O'mar his successor.

8. Omar, aided by the celebrated general, Obedi'ah, in the course of one campaign subdued Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldea, and in a second reduced the whole of Persia. His army, under Am'rou, took the city of Alexandria and subdued Egypt. Amrou, being requested to spare the Alexandrian library, which at that time contained upwards of five hundred thousand volumes, wrote to the Caliph for

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How many battles did he fight? Where and when did he die?—6. What was one of the causes of his success? What were the three conditions he proposed to those whom he threatened with war? What was another cause of his success?—7. By whom was Mahomet succeeded? What did he invade?—8. What did Omar subdue? What city was taken? What number of volumes was in the Alexandrian library?

directions respecting the books. Omar answered, that if they agreed with the Koran they were useless, and if they differed from it they were dangerous; in either case they were to be destroyed. The books were, accordingly, distributed throughout the city, and served, it is said, to warm the public baths for six months. Some authorities maintain that the Arabs were not responsible for the destruction of the famous library.

9. Omar, during a reign of ten years, reduced upwards of thirty thousand cities and villages to his dominion, and is said to have demolished four thousand Christian churches and to have erected fourteen hundred mosques for the Mohammedan worship. He was finally assassinated at Medina in 644, by a Persian slave, whose complaints against his master he had refused to hear. Oth'man was immediately chosen his successor, who added Bactriana and a part of Tartary to the dominion of the Caliphs. On his death Ali, the son-in-law of Mohammed, was chosen to succeed him. Ali is regarded as one of the bravest and most virtuous of the Caliphs; his reign was illustrious, although it lasted only five years. In the space of less than half a century the Saracen dominions were more extensive than what remained of the Roman empire; and in one hundred years from the flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina, the empire of his successors extended from India to the Atlantic, comprehending Persia, Syria, Asia Minor, Arabia, Egypt, Northern Africa, and Spain.

10. During the reign of Ali a schism took place among the followers of Mohammed, which continues to divide them to the present time. Abubeker, Omar, and Othman are regarded as usurpers by the partisans of Ali, and are branded by the name of Shi'ites, or schismatics. On the other hand, these three Caliphs are held in the greatest veneration by the opponents of Ali, who styled themselves Sun'nites, because they follow the traditions of their Mohammedan ancestors, while the Shiites acknowledge the Koran only. The Persians are of the sect of Ali. The Turks are the Sunnites and Otto-

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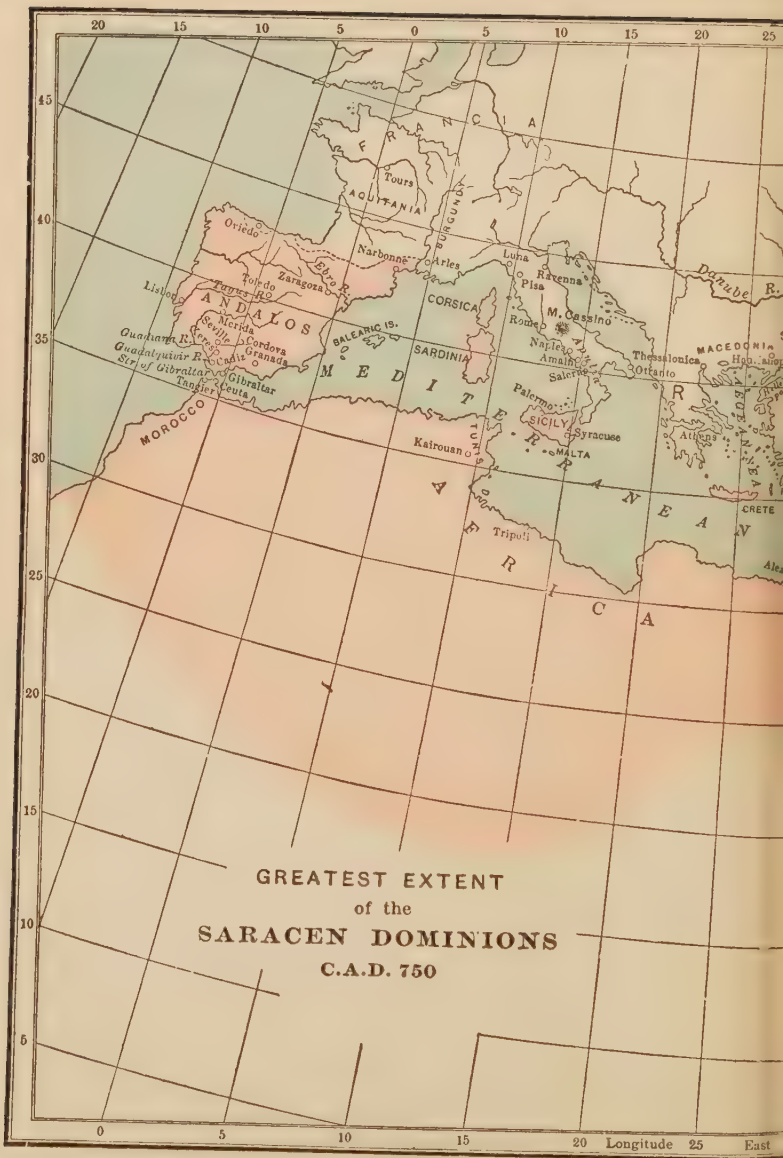
What was Omar's answer respecting it? What was done with the books?—9. During his reign, how many cities did he reduce? How many churches did he demolish? What was his end? Who succeeded him? In less than half a century, what is said of the Saracen dominions?—10. During the reign of Ali, what took place? Who are regarded as usurpers? Of what sect are the Persians? The Turks?


GREATEST EXTENT
of the
SARACEN DOMINIONS
C.A.D. 750
FRANCIA
AQUITANIA
Tours
Narbonne
Arles
Luna
Ravenna
Pisa
Rome
M. Cassino
Naples
Amalfi
Salerno
Thessalonica
Ottanto
MACEDONIA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
BALEARIC IS.
ANDALOS
Oviedo
Toledo
Zaragoza
Ebro R.
Lisbon
Merida
Seville
Cordova
Granada
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Ceuta
Tangier
Guadiana R.
Guadalquivir R.
Str. of Gibraltar
MOROCCO
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Palermo
SICILY
Syracuse
MALTA
Kairouan
TUNIS
Tripoli
AFRICA
Athens
CRETE
Danube R.
0
5
10
15
20
Longitude
25
East
45
40
35
30
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T U R K S
Jaxartes R.
Sogd
Oxus R.
Samarcand
Balkh
CASPIAN SEA
KHORASMIA
KHORASAN
R. Indus
HINDOOSTAN
Trapezus (Trebizond)
Araxes R.
ARAD
Thebarnes
Edessa
IRAK AJEMI
Nineveh
Aleppo
Damascus
Tiberias
Jerusalem
Gaza
Tigris R.
Euphrates R.
Kufa
Bagdad
Ctesiphon
Isfahan
Yezd
Elmas
Bussorah
IRAK ARABI
FARS
KERMAN
SIND
Mooltan
Hejaz
Nejd
Oman
Medina
Mecca
Muscat
Hamyarites
Hadramat
ABYSSINIA
Greenwich

mans, or the disciples of Othman. Between those parties a mutual hatred and animosity still exists.

11. Ali removed the seat of the Mussulman empire from Mecca to Cufa, on the Euphrates, and during the year 768 it was removed by Almanzor to Bagdad, which became the most illustrious caliphate in the history of the Saracens. Next to Bagdad the other most distinguished caliphate was that of Cordova, in Spain. Almanzor, who built the city of Bagdad and transferred to it the seat of the Saracen empire, was a liberal patron of learning and science, and the first Caliph who introduced the cultivation of them among the Saracens. The reign of Haroun'-al-Rasch'id, twenty-fifth Caliph, who was contemporary with Charlemagne, was the most illustrious in the whole dynasty, and is regarded as the Augustan age of Ar'abic literature. This prince distinguished himself by his valor and generosity, also by his equitable government and his patronage of learned men. At this period schools were established in the principal towns. The sciences chiefly cultivated were medicine, geometry, and astronomy; poetry and works of fiction also commanded some attention.

12. From the time of the removal of the seat of government to Bagdad, the importance of Arabia began to decline. Many chiefs of the interior provinces asserted their independence, and only regarded the Caliph as the head of their religion. As the conquests of the Saracens extended, their states became disunited. Spain, Egypt, Morocco, and India had at an early period their separate sovereigns, who continued to regard the Caliphs of Bagdad as the successors of the prophet, although they acknowledged in them no temporal jurisdiction. Thirty-seven Caliphs of the house of Abbas reigned in succession. For four hundred and ninety years Bagdad continued to be the seat of the Saracen empire, during which time it sustained several obstinate sieges and was the seat of various revolutions.

13. In the six hundred and fifty-sixth year of the Hegira, A. D. 1258, Bagdad was taken by Hul'aku, the grandson of the celebrated Genghis Khan. Al Mostasem, the last of the Caliphs, was put to death, the caliphate abolished, and the

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11. What did Ali do? What is said of Almanzor? Of the reign of Raschid? Of schools at this period?—12. What is said of many of the interior provinces? What had Spain, etc., at an early period? How long was Bagdad the capital?—13. When and by whom was Bagdad taken?

Saracen empire terminated. The manner in which Al Mostasem was put to death was somewhat singular. He had been noted for his pride and ostentation; when he appeared in public he usually wore a veil to conceal his face from the people, whom he considered as unworthy to look upon him. After the taking of the city, Hulaku, with the design of punishing his pride, ordered the wretched Caliph to be confined in a leather bag and to be dragged through the streets till he expired. At the present time the Saracens, once so powerful, possess little territory other than the deserts of Arabia, and are usually known by the name of Arabs.

CHAPTER III

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

THE Feud'al System had its origin among the Goths, Van'dals, Lom'bards, and other barbarous nations that overran the continent of Europe on the decline of the Roman empire. It was adopted in France during the reign of Charlemagne, and is generally supposed to have been introduced into England by William the Conqueror. It was at least greatly developed by the Normans, though among the Anglo-Saxons it existed in outline.

2. When the northern barbarians had overrun the Roman empire, the conquered provinces were divided by lot among the different chieftains, without any other obligation existing between them than that of uniting their forces, in case of war, for their mutual defence. But the fundamental principles of the Feudal System were established in the following order: The king or chief, who led his respective tribes to conquest, retained for himself by far the largest share of the conquered territory, dividing the remaining portion of the land among his followers according to their rank; these bound themselves to render him merely military service. The example of the king was imitated by his nobles, who, under similar condi-

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Relate the manner in which Al Mostasem was put to death. At present, what is said of the Saracens?

Chapter III.—1. Where had the Feudal System its origin? When was it adopted in France? When in England?—2. In what order were the principles established?

tions, granted portions of their estates to their dependents. The grantor was called Lord, and those to whom the grant was made were styled Feudatories or Vassals.

3. The feudal government, though well adapted to defence, was nevertheless very defective in its provisions for the internal order of society. The great barons or lords possessed extensive tracts of country, erected on them fortified castles in places difficult of access, oppressed the people, slighted the civil authorities, and frequently set their sovereigns at defiance.

4. A kingdom resembled a number of confederate states under one common head: the barons or lords acknowledging a species of allegiance to their sovereign, yet when obedience was refused, it could only be enforced by an appeal to arms. But the great mass of the people, who cultivated the land, were called serfs or villeins, and lived in the most servile condition. They were not permitted to bear arms, nor suffered to leave the estates of their lords. As each of the feudal lords was independent within the limits of his immediate possessions, and as the thread of unity existing between them was at all times feeble, it was natural to suppose that frequent disputes and sanguinary contests were the consequence. Such in reality was the case; hence we find that Europe, during the existence of the Feudal System, exhibited an almost uninterrupted scene of anarchy, turbulence, and destructive warfare.

5. Some of the causes assigned for the gradual decline of the Feudal System were the Crusades, the extension of commerce, the increase and distribution of wealth and knowledge, and, lastly, the change of warfare which followed the invention of gunpowder. It still exists in a partial degree in some parts of Europe, particularly in Russia, Poland, and in some portions of Germany.

What was the grantor called? And those to whom the grant was made?—3. What is said of the feudal government? Of the great barons?—4. What did a kingdom resemble? What is said of the people? As each lord was independent, etc., what was natural to suppose?—5. What are some of the causes assigned for its decline? Where does it exist in a partial degree?

CHAPTER IV

THE CRUSADES.

THE Crusades were military expeditions undertaken by the Catholics of Europe for the purpose of delivering the Holy Land, and particularly the Sepulchre of our Savior, from the oppressive dominion of the Turks. As early as the year 637, Jerusalem fell into the hands of the Saracens, who, for political reasons, permitted the Christians to visit the city. In 1065, the Seljukian Turks, a wild and ferocious tribe of Tartars, obtained possession of the Holy City; from this period the Christian inhabitants were exposed to every species of outrage and insult. The Christians of Europe, actuated by motives of religion, were often induced to visit those places hallowed by the footsteps and sanctified by the sufferings of the Savior of man. But if, after travelling thousand of miles, amidst dangers and hardships, they reached Palestine, they were only allowed to enter the city of Jerusalem on the payment of a certain sum of money, and if they succeeded in gaining admittance they were exposed, like other Christian inhabitants, to all the horrors of Mohammedan brutality. It is even stated by credible historians, that some were loaded with chains and compelled to draw a cart or a plough, while others were condemned to an ignominious death.

2. Such was the condition of Palestine when Peter the Hermit, a famous priest and native of Amiens, in France, undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Moved at the sight of the cruel treatment which was inflicted upon the Christians of Asia, he prevailed upon Simon, the venerable Patriarch of Jerusalem, to write to the Pope and to the princes of Europe, for the purpose of soliciting their aid in arresting the cruelty of the Turks exercised against their Catholic brethren in the East, offering himself to be the bearer of these letters. The Patriarch having assented to this measure, Peter immediately returned to Europe and presented himself before

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CHAPTER IV.—1. What were the Crusades? In the year 637, what took place? And in 1065? From this period what is said? What did the Christians of Europe do? After travelling thousands of miles, what is said of them? What is stated?—2. Who now undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem? Moved at the sight of the oppression, what did Peter do?

SOLDIERS OF THE CROSS, FIRST CRUSADE.

Pope Urban II. He was kindly received by the Pontiff, who readily entered into his views, and commissioned him to go forth and preach in favor of the suffering Christians in Palestine, and the deliverance of Jerusalem from the hands of the Infidels.

3. Peter, who was eminently qualified for this important office, travelled through Italy, France, and other countries, and, by his pathetic and glowing eloquence, enkindled in the breasts of his hearers the same zeal that animated his own. Finally, the subject was brought before a council held at Piacenza, and afterwards before the Council at Clermont, in France, towards the close of the year 1095. After Peter had spoken on the subject of the holy war with his usual ardor, the Pope himself addressed the assembled Bishops and princes in an eloquent and animated discourse, which he concluded in the following words: "Go now and take the sword of the Machabees, protect the people of God and defend your persecuted brethren against the implacable enemies of the Christian name. Mussulman impiety has overspread the fairest regions of Asia. Ephesus, Nice, and Antioch have become Mohammedan cities. The barbarous hordes of the Turks have planted their colors on the very shores of the Hellespont, whence they threaten war to all the states of Christendom. Unless you oppose a mighty barrier to their triumphant career, how can Europe be saved from invasion?"

4. At the conclusion of this discourse the whole assembly exclaimed, "It is the will of God;" and hastened to enroll their names for the sacred expedition. As a mark of their engagement, it was proposed that a cross of red material should be worn on the right shoulder, and from this circumstance the name Crusade is derived. Such were the views entertained by the first Crusaders, and such were the circumstances that called the Crusades into being.

5. **The First Crusade.**—The enthusiasm which had manifested itself at the Council of Clermont was soon diffused throughout every part of Christendom; thousands from every part of Europe hastened to enlist under the banner of the

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How was he received by the Pontiff? What commission did he receive?—3. What is said of Peter? Where was the subject finally brought? After Peter had spoken, who addressed the assembly? How did he conclude?—4. At the conclusion of the discourse, what was said? From what is the word Crusade derived?—5. What is said of the enthusiasm of the Council of Clermont?

cross. Domestic quarrels and private animosities were buried in oblivion. The sovereign and the noble, the prince and the peasant, animated alike with a kindred feeling, began to prepare for their departure to the East.

6. Among the princes who engaged in the first Crusade, the following were the most conspicuous: Raymond, Count of Toulouse; Robert, Duke of Normandy, brother to the king of England; Hugh the Great, Count of Vermandois, and brother to the king of France; Robert, Earl of Flanders; Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine, and various persons of distinguished rank. Among these, Godfrey of Bouillon, equally eminent for his amiable virtues and extraordinary valor, held the most prominent place, although it does not appear that he was invested with the chief command.

7. Early in the spring of 1096, the vanguard of the Crusaders, amounting, according to some authors, to more than seven hundred thousand persons, commenced their march towards the East, in two different directions. The first division of this vast multitude, under the command of Peter the Hermit, being destitute of that subordination and discipline so requisite in large armies, met, in general, with a disastrous fate. Many of them were slain on their march through Hungary and Bulgaria, by the inhabitants, whose attacks they had provoked by the outrages they committed; those who succeeded in reaching Asia were met by Sultan Sol'iman, on the plains of Nice, and almost entirely annihilated before they came in sight of Jerusalem.

8. The second division, under the command of able and experienced officers, such as Godfrey, and Baldwin, his brother, acted with more prudence, and arrived safely at Constantinople. The Greek Emperor Alexis, alarmed at the multitude of warriors that surrounded his capital, lost no time in facilitating their departure. He treated the leaders of the Crusaders with every courtesy, and concluded a treaty with them, by which they agreed to conquer in his name, and restore those cities which had formerly belonged to his empire, on condition that he should aid them in the conquest of the

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Of domestic quarrels? Of the sovereigns?—6. In the first Crusade, who were the most conspicuous princes? Who held the most prominent place?—7. What was done early in the spring of 1096? What is said of the first division? Where were many of them slain?—8. What is said of the second division? Of the Greek emperor? How did he treat the leaders?

Holy Land. He then gave orders that his vessels should be prepared without delay, to convey them across the Bos'phorus to the Asiatic coast.

9. The Christian army, which amounted to about six hundred thousand infantry and one hundred thousand cavalry, commenced its march towards Nice, a city in Bithynia, to which they laid siege. Nice, reduced to the last extremity, was on the point of yielding to the Crusaders, when the Greek Emperor, by private embassies, prevailed on the inhabitants to surrender to him rather than to the Latins. This duplicity on the part of Alexis highly displeased the Crusaders, and from the little inclination manifested by the Greek monarch towards fulfilling his engagements, the Latin Lords thought themselves no longer bound by the treaty. After the reduction of Nice they proceeded eastward, conquered Edessa, defeated an army of six hundred thousand Saracens near Dorylæum, in Phrygia, took Antioch, where they were reduced to the utmost distress by famine, and finally advanced to Jerusalem, which they took after a siege of forty days.

10. Dreadful was the scene that followed the first transports of victory. The Crusaders, exasperated by their long suffering and by the obstinate resistance of the Saracens, and being probably afraid of new dangers, put to the sword nearly all the garrison and inhabitants of Jerusalem. The streets, the mosques, and citadel were all filled with blood. After this the attention of the princes was directed towards the defence of the recently conquered city. The heroic and generous Godfrey, Duke of Lorraine, who had abstained from all the carnage that followed the taking of the city, was chosen king by unanimous consent. He accepted the appointment with diffidence, but constantly refused the diadem and other insignia of royalty, saying that he could never consent to wear a crown of gold where the Savior of the world had worn a crown of thorns.

11. Scarcely was he proclaimed king when the approach of an army of four hundred thousand Saracens threatened

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What orders did he give?—9. What was now the amount of the Christian army? When Nice was on the point of yielding, what did the Greek Emperor do? What was the effect of this duplicity? After the reduction of Nice, where did they proceed, and what did they do?—10. After taking Jerusalem, what did the Crusaders do? After this, to what was their attention directed? Who was chosen king? What did he refuse, and what did he say?—11. What threatened the destruction of the kingdom?

the destruction of the kingdom. With about twenty thousand followers the pious and intrepid Godfrey sallied forth to meet this powerful host. The two armies met on the plains of As'calon, and, notwithstanding the disparity of numbers, the Saracens suffered a ruinous defeat, and Godfrey returned in triumph to Jerusalem.

12. The Crusaders, having divided Palestine and Syria into four states, and seeing the object of their expedition accomplished, began to think of returning to Europe; but as they withdrew their forces the Turks gradually recovered their power. Godfrey, after enjoying the regal dignity for the short space of one year, also returned to Europe, and was succeeded in the kingdom of Jerusalem by his brother, Baldwin I.

13. After the death of Baldwin I, in 1130, jealousy and violent dissensions began to prevail among the princes in the kingdom of Jerusalem, and from this period its prosperity began rapidly to decline. The Saracens, taking advantage of these disorders, renewed their attacks, took Edessa, and threatened the entire destruction of the Christian kingdom in the East. Surrounded by these calamities, the Christians of Palestine found themselves constrained to the necessity of soliciting aid from the princes of Europe. This circumstance gave rise to the second Crusade.

14. **The Second Crusade.**—Immediately after the arrival of the deputies who had been sent from Syria for the purpose of obtaining assistance from Europe, a second Crusade was preached, under the direction of Pope Eugenius III, by the celebrated St. Bernard, the learned and eloquent Abbot of Clairvaux, A. D. 1147.

15. Louis VII, of France, and Conrad III, of Germany, with three hundred thousand of their subjects, assumed the cross and began to prepare for an expedition to the East. Conrad, who proceeded in advance of the French monarch, was defeated by the Turks near Iconium, and Louis himself suffered a signal overthrow near the city of Laodic'ea, in Phrygia, with the loss of the flower of his army. After these

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What did Godfrey do? Where did the two armies meet, and what was the issue of the battle?—12. Of what did the Crusaders now begin to think? What is said of Godfrey?—13. After the death of Baldwin, what took place? What did the Saracens do? What did the Christians find themselves constrained to do?—14. After the arrival of the deputies in Europe, what was done?—15. What princes assumed the cross? What happened to Conrad? To Louis?

disasters the two monarchs succeeded in reaching Palestine, and, having arrived at Jerusalem, they summoned all the Latin princes of Asia to a council, where it was determined to abandon the design of reconquering Edessa, which had been the first object of the Crusade, and to make one united effort against Damascus. After their operations had been carried on for some time with every appearance of success, their designs were suddenly frustrated by a violent disease that broke out in the Christian camp; the siege was consequently abandoned. Louis and Conrad, disgusted at the conduct of the Latin princes in Asia, left them to their unhappy fate and took their departure for Europe. Thus terminated the second Crusade, with immense loss to the West, without having produced the slightest advantage to the Christians of the East.

16. The famous Saladin, who, about the year 1174, had raised himself to the sovereignty of Egypt, Arabia, Syria, and Persia, formed the design of reconquering Palestine from the Christians. He defeated their army in the battle of Tiberias, and laid siege of Jerusalem, which was forced to surrender by capitulation, the Christian inhabitants being permitted to depart on the payment of a certain sum of money. Thus again the Holy City fell into the hands of the Saracens, eighty-eight years after it had been conquered by the first Crusaders, A. D. 1187.

17. **The Third Crusade.**—When the intelligence of the fate of Jerusalem reached Europe, the deepest affliction pervaded all ranks of the people. The venerable Pontiff, Urban III, was so affected at the news that he died of a broken heart. This, however, was soon succeeded by a desire to retrieve the loss sustained by the Christians in the East. The most illustrious monarchs reigning at that time in Europe, were Philip Augustus of France, Henry II of England, and Frederic I of Germany. These three sovereigns, with the principal Lords of their respective dominions, assumed the cross, and began to make preparations to enter on a third Crusade.

What broke out in the Christian camp? What did Louis and Conrad finally do?—16. What is said of Saladin? What did he defeat? How long had the Holy City remained in possession of the Christians?—17. When this intelligence reached Europe, what is said? Who were the most illustrious sovereigns at this time in Europe? What did they do?

18. Frederic, at the head of an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men, was the first of the three monarchs that commenced his march towards the East. Victory and success attended his arms whenever he advanced, until an unfortunate circumstance frustrated his brightest hopes. Having crossed into Asia Minor, and passed the defiles of Mount Tau'rus, the German monarch proceeded at the head of his army, along the banks of the Cydnus, in which he was accidentally drowned while bathing in the river. In the interval Henry II of England died, and was succeeded by his son Richard, surnamed Cœur de Lion, or the Lion-hearted, on account of his extraordinary valor. To the adventurous and military spirit of Richard, the Crusades presented an irresistible attraction; and, after making the necessary preparations, he joined Philip Augustus of France, and embarked on an expedition to the Holy Land.

19. The two monarchs, in conjuncton, took Ptolemais; but unhappily a misunderstanding between them prevented their further action in concert. In consequence of this, Philip, leaving a part of his forces in Palestine, returned to France. Richard having been left to the sole command, ably sustained the contest against the Sultan Saladin, whom he signally defeated in the memorable battle near As'calon. The feats of arms displayed by Richard on this and other occasions more resemble the achievements of a hero of romance than the deeds of a prince of authentic history. On one occasion it is related, that with one stroke of his sword he severed the head, right shoulder, and arm, from the body of a Saracen chief. On another, he threw himself with so much ardor into the thickest of the contest, that for some moments he disappeared amidst the host of his enemies; when he returned, his horse was covered with blood, and so numerous were the darts and arrows, fastened in his shield and dress, that, according to an eye-witness, he resembled a cushion covered with needles.

20. His army being at length reduced by famine and fatigue, the English monarch began to think of returning to Europe. Accordingly, having concluded a truce for three years and eight months with Saladin, on terms advantageous to the Christians, he took his departure for his own do-

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18. What is said of Frederic? What was his end? What is said of Richard?—19. What is said of the two monarchs? Being left to the sole command, what did Richard do? What is said of his feats of arms? On one occasion, what is said of him?—20. What did he conclude?

minions. The vessel in which he sailed being wrecked on the coast of the Adriatic sea, Richard resolved to pursue his course by land; but as he passed through Germany with only a few attendants, he fell into the hands of the Emperor Henry IV, by whom he was retained a prisoner until he was ransomed by his subjects, who paid for his release the sum of £300,000. He finally reached his own dominions after an absence of four years.

Such was the result of the third Crusade. Although it did not terminate in the recovery of the Holy City, still it led to the conquest of the island of Cyprus, and the surrender of Acre, a town of considerable importance to the Christians.

21. **The Fourth Crusade.**—A fourth Crusade was undertaken about the year 1195, in which Henry IV, Emperor of Germany, bore the most distinguished part; but his death, which happened before he reached Palestine, and the unfortunate quarrels among the other leaders, frustrated the lofty design of recovering the Holy Land.

22. **The Fifth Crusade.**—About the close of the twelfth century, during the Pontificate of Pope Innocent III, a fifth Crusade was undertaken by Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat, and Baldwin, Earl of Flanders. Having made the necessary preparations, they collected their forces at Zara, a city in Dalmatia, for the purpose of transporting them to Palestine by sea. But before their departure from this place, Alexius, the son of Isaac, the Greek Emperor, arrived at the camp, bearing the intelligence that his father had lately been dethroned and inhumanly deprived of his sight, and was then in the hands of the usurper of his crown. At the same time he pledged himself, in the most solemn manner, to aid the Crusaders in the recovery of the Holy Land, to maintain during his life five hundred knights for its defence, and offered, moreover, the payment of a considerable sum of money, if they, on their part, would lend assistance in expelling the usurper, and restoring his father to the throne.

23. After some deliberation, the Crusaders accepted his proposals; and sailing immediately from Zara, they directed

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What is said of the vessel? What happened to him as he passed through Germany? What was paid for his ransom?—21. When was the fourth Crusade undertaken? Who bore a distinguished part?—22. When was the fifth Crusade undertaken? Where did they collect their forces? Before their departure, what took place? What did Alexius pledge himself to do?—23. After some deliberation, what did the Crusaders do?

their course to Constantinople, which they took after a siege of ten days. The usurper made his escape. The old Emperor being released from prison and restored to his throne, immediately ratified the engagements made by his son with the Latins. But scarcely had the Crusaders departed on their march towards Palestine, when a sudden revolution in the city obliged them to return. The Emperor and his son Alexius fell victims to the intrigues and perfidy of one of their courtiers, surnamed Murzuph'lis, who placed himself upon the throne.

24. As soon as the news of this murder and usurpation reached the camp of the Crusaders, they resolved to avenge the death of the unfortunate princes, their allies and benefactors. Marching back to Constantinople, they took the city after a furious assault, though it was defended by upwards of two hundred thousand men, and contained a population of about one million of inhabitants.

Having thus a second time, in the short space of a few months, conquered the great capital of the East, the Latins proceeded to elect an Emperor from their own body. The choice fell upon Baldwin, Count of Flanders, who was accordingly invested with the ensigns of royalty, and quietly ascended the imperial throne, A. D. 1204.

25. Here terminated the efforts of the Crusaders; satisfied with this splendid acquisition, they attempted nothing further against the Saracens. Such were the circumstances that led to the establishment of the Latin Empire at Constantinople. Few events on the page of history are more curious and interesting than this singular revolution. It was destined, however, to be of short duration; after a precarious existence of fifty-seven years, Constantinople again fell under the dominion of the Greeks.

26. **The Sixth Crusade.**—The last expedition having failed to accomplish the object for which it was designed, namely, the recovery of the Holy Land, a sixth Crusade was shortly afterwards undertaken. Among those who bore a distinguished part in this expedition was John of Brienne, a

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What is said of the old emperor? What happened to the emperor and Alexius?—24. As soon as this news reached their camp, what did the Crusaders do? Having thus conquered the capital of the East, to what did they proceed? On whom did the choice fall?—25. Satisfied, etc., what did they attempt? How long did the empire last?—26. What was shortly afterwards underaken? Who was the most distinguished?

French nobleman, who, at the head of one hundred thousand men, made a descent upon Egypt, with a design of destroying the power of the Sultan at the seat of his government. He took Damietta, but owing to subsequent disasters, particularly the inundation of the Nile, he was finally compelled to abandon his conquests and to evacuate Egypt, A. D. 1221.

27. About the same period the famous Frederick II, Emperor of Germany, led an army into Palestine, and obtained by treaty from the Sultan the restoration of Jerusalem; but so little precaution did he take to defend it, that it soon fell again into the hands of the Infidels. Palestine was afterwards visited by several other princes of Europe; but they were able to effect little more than to conclude a treaty of peace. After the departure of Richard, Earl of Cornwall, brother to the king of England, a sudden irruption of fierce barbarians from Korazan laid waste the Holy Land, and left Palestine in the most deplorable condition.

28. **The Seventh and Eighth Crusades.**—At this period, A. D. 1244, France was under the mild administration of Louis IX, a prince equally distinguished for his heroic fortitude and for all the more amiable virtues that adorn the Christian heart. The deplorable state of Palestine deeply afflicted his generous soul, and on his recovery from a dangerous illness he resolved to assume the cross, and by his exhortations induced many of his nobles to imitate his example. After four years' preparation he set out on the expedition, accompanied by his heroic queen, his three brothers, and all the knights of France. He began the enterprise by invading Egypt, and, after losing one-half of his numerous army by contagious diseases, he was defeated and taken prisoner by the Saracens. Having ransomed himself and his army, he proceeded to Palestine, where he remained for several years in endeavoring to secure the welfare of the Christian colonies, by repairing the fortifications of the towns which yet remained in their possession. The death of his mother, to whom he had intrusted the government during his absence, obliged him to return to France.

29. About thirteen years after his return from his first Crusade, St. Louis was induced to undertake a second. Hav-

What city did he take?—27. What did Frederick II do and obtain? After the departure of Richard, what took place?—28. At this period, who reigned in France? What did he resolve? How did he begin the enterprise? Having ransomed himself, where did he proceed?—29. When did he undertake a second Crusade?

ing provided for the government of his kingdom in his absence, he embarked with sixty thousand chosen troops, landed in Africa, and laid siege to Tunis. Before anything of importance could be effected, a raging pestilence carried off one-half of his flourishing army, the king himself being numbered among its victims. This terminated the last of the Crusades A. D. 1270.

30. **The Results of the Crusades.**—The period during which the Crusades continued has been styled by some historians, "the heroic age of Christianity." No other military enterprise ever claimed the attention of the Christian world so long and so universally as the Crusades. For nearly two centuries Catholic Europe continued to send forth her legions to conquer or die upon the plains of Asia. The two most powerful agents that can operate upon the human mind combined to call them into being; namely, zeal for religion and sympathy for suffering humanity.

31. To see the land of Palestine, hallowed by all the associations dearest to the Christian heart, that land sanctified by the footsteps and watered by the tears and blood of the Son of God, that land where first the light of Christianity dawned, trodden down by the footsteps of infidelity; to see that Calvary where died the Redeemer of man, that Sepulchre in which He was laid polluted and defiled by Mussulman impiety, is even at this distant day capable of producing the deepest emotions. To deliver this land from the power of the Infidels, who only held it by the right of conquest, was at that period deemed not only a lawful, but even a holy and sacred, duty.

32. On the other hand, the cruelties exercised against the defenceless Christians of Palestine and the pilgrims, whom a religious zeal had drawn to the Holy City, cried aloud to the princes of Europe for their interposition. The evils which marked the progress of the Crusades were similar to those that follow in the train of other great military enterprises. It is computed that two millions of Europeans during the continuance of these wars were buried in the East.

What was the fate of his army? Of the king himself? When did the Crusades terminate?—30. What has this period been styled? What is said of the enterprise? What agents combined to call them into being?—31. What is capable of producing the deepest emotion? What was deemed a sacred duty?—32. What cried aloud for the interposition of the princes of Europe? How many were buried in the East?

33. As to their design, the Crusades are justly regarded as masterpieces of policy, which not only secured the independence of Catholic Europe, but were otherwise beneficial to mankind. In the first place, they checked the alarming progress of the Saracens and Seljukian Turks, who were thus prevented from penetrating into the very heart of Christendom. Secondly, they greatly contributed towards the gradual decline of the Feudal System, which at that period prevailed throughout Europe. The great Barons who engaged in the Crusades were obliged to sell a portion of their lands in order to procure the means of conveying their troops into a foreign country. By this means the aristocracy was weakened, wealth more widely diffused, and the lower orders of society began to acquire property, influence, and a spirit of independence. The sovereigns, in like manner, impelled by the same pecuniary necessity, sold to towns important privileges and immunities, such as the right of electing their own magistrates, and being governed by their own municipal laws.

34. Thirdly, these expeditions had a most beneficial influence on commerce and navigation. Previous to this period commerce had been carried on only on a very limited scale. The attention of the people of Europe had never been sufficiently drawn to the great advantages of water transportation until the disasters of the first Crusaders, in attempting to march their forces by land, impressed upon the minds of those who succeeded the expediency of conveying their troops by water. Hence, by the frequent voyages to Palestine, the arts of navigation and shipbuilding were rapidly improved, and from that period may be dated the great commercial prosperity and power of Venice and Genoa. Moreover, several new and valuable articles were imported from the East, which have since formed important branches of trade, such as the sugar-cane, with its various products, and silk, which began to be manufactured in Italy about the year 1209.

35. Finally, the Crusades, although in some respects injurious to literature, were, nevertheless, ultimately beneficial to it. The frequent communication of the people of the

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33. How are the Crusades regarded? In the first place, what did they do? In the second place? What were the great barons obliged to do? By this means what was done? What is said of the sovereigns?—34. Previous to this period what is said of commerce? Of the attention of the people of Europe? From this period what may be dated? What is further observed?—35. What was one of the most powerful helps towards the revival of learning?

West with Greece and Syria, which the Crusades necessarily occasioned, was one of the most powerful helps towards the complete revival of learning. At the time when the Crusades were undertaken, owing to the almost uninterrupted series of hostilities, civil feuds, and sanguinary wars that had desolated the face of Europe, literature was, comparatively speaking, much neglected. In the East, however, particularly at Constantinople, learning and the arts were still cherished to some extent. The Crusaders, therefore, by their intercourse without a people more polished and enlightened than themselves, acquired a taste for the arts and sciences which they did not fail to improve on their return to Europe.

36. Hence we find that the principal universities of Europe, even at the present day, were founded during the period of the Crusades, or immediately after. The University of Padua was founded in 1180, and that of Paris the same year; that of Naples in 1230; that of Vienna in 1238; that of Salamanca in 1240; Cambridge in 1280; and that of Lisbon in 1290.

37. The Crusades are among the most colossal events in the annals of history. In them "we see numberless nations arise, march across deserts, bury themselves in countries with which they are unacquainted, and expose themselves to all the rigors of seasons and climates. And for what purpose? To deliver a Tomb! Grand and immortal movement, where hundreds of nations advance to certain death—not in pursuit of a miserable self-interest, not to find an abode in milder and more fertile countries, not from an ardent desire to obtain for themselves any earthly advantages—but inspired only by a religious idea, by a jealous desire to possess the Tomb of Him who expired on the Cross for the salvation of the human race. When compared with this, what becomes of the lofty deeds of the Greeks, chanted by Homer? Greece rises to avenge an injured husband—Europe to redeem the sepulchre of Christ."*

* For a fuller account of the Crusades, see Fredet's *Modern History*.

At the time when the Crusades were undertaken, what is said of literature? What did they acquire?—36. Hence what do we find? When were these universities founded?—37. How do the Crusades stand in history? What do we see in them? How do they compare with the deeds of the Greeks chanted by Homer?

CHAPTER V

CHIVALRY.

CHIVALRY, or Knighthood, was a military institution prevalent in Europe during the Middle Ages, and forms a remarkable feature in the history of that period. Nothing can be conceived more truly noble than the leading objects of Chivalry. It united in its institution a love of arms and military renown, an eagerness to support the weak, to protect the oppressed, to avenge the wrongs of the widow and the orphan, to restrain the lawless and to refine the rude; it blended with religion the highest sentiments of honor, and inculcated a devoted attachment and inviolable fidelity to the female sex; in short, it combined in its principal elements, valor and honor, courtesy and religion.

2. The early history of Chivalry is involved in obscurity; the particular nations and the peculiar circumstances in which it had its origin are not precisely known; still the leading principles by which it is distinguished may be found among the manners and customs of the Gothic nations, by whom the profession of arms was the only employment esteemed honorable, and who were remarkable for the delicate and respectful gallantry which they manifested towards the female sex. It was embodied into a form and regulated by certain laws under the Feudal System, and afterwards brought to maturity and gained the meridian of its splendor during the Crusades, when it assumed the aspect of a religious institution. Chivalry prevailed in almost every part of Europe, but in France, Spain and Germany it attained its greatest purity. In England its introduction was later and its progress slower.

3. There were three degrees of Chivalry, namely, Knights Ban'nerets, Knights, and Esquires. The first rank, to which peculiar privileges were allowed, could only be attained by those who had passed through the other two degrees. The second, and by far the most numerous class, consisted of Knights who were generally persons of noble birth, although it frequently became the reward of merit, and soldiers distinguished for their valor were sometimes admitted into this

CHAPTER V.—1. What is Chivalry? What is said of it? What did it combine as its chief elements?—2. What is said of its early history? Where may its leading principles be found? When was it embodied into a form? Where did it prevail?—3. What were the three degrees? What is said of the first rank? Of the second?

class. The third class was the Squirehood, consisting of a body of efficient soldiers, inferior in rank to the knights, but superior to the common soldiery.

4. Those who were destined for Chivalry were placed for education, at the age of seven years, in the castle of their father, or that of some neighboring noble, where they received the appellation of page or valet, until they arrived at the age of fourteen, when they obtained the title of Esquire, and were authorized to bear arms. They were kept in active employment in the castle, being obliged to wait upon the lord and his lady at home, and attend them abroad, and thus become accustomed to obedience and courteous demeanor. Surrounded by noble and virtuous ladies, and valiant knights, the first impressions made on their minds were those of virtue and love, honor and valor. From the ladies they learned the first rudiments of religion and love; and in order that they might practise in some degree the lessons they received, it was customary for each youth to select some young, accomplished, and virtuous lady as his patroness, before whom he might display all his gallantry, and whose duty it was to improve and polish his manners.

5. The Esquires were employed in various offices in the castle until the age of twenty-one, which was the proper age for admitting them to all the honors of knighthood. The candidate was required to prepare himself by rigid fasting, passing the night in prayer, and by a solemn confession; and as a type of the purity of the life and manners that would be required of him, he was clothed in white. Having performed these preliminary rites, he then entered the church, where an examination took place; and if judged worthy to be admitted into the order of knighthood, he received the Sacraments and took the oath, consisting of twenty-six articles, in which, among other things, he solemnly pledged himself to defend the Church, to respect the priesthood, to protect the ladies, and to redress the wrongs of the widow and the orphan.

6. While yet on his knees, he received from the hands of the knights and the ladies the insignia of Chivalry—the spurs, cuirass, coat of mail, and other parts of his armor, and lastly, his sword, which was previously blessed by the priest. The

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Of the third?—4. Where were those destined for Chivalry placed? How were they kept? By whom were they surrounded? What was customary for each youth?—5. How were esquires employed? How was the candidate required to prepare? What did he solemnly pledge himself to do?—6. While on his knees, what did he receive?

concluding ceremony was performed by one of the most distinguished Chevaliers present, who bestowed on the young knight the accolad'e, which consisted in giving him a slight blow on the shoulder or cheek with his sword.

7. The most important equipments of a knight were his horse and his lance; his other offensive arms were his sword, dagger, battle-axe, and mace. The endowments of an accomplished knight at the most flourishing period of Chivalry, were beauty, dexterity in dancing, riding, hunting, and tilting; while piety, chastity, modesty, courtesy, liberality, and sobriety, and, above all, an inviolable attachment to truth and invincible courage, were regarded as his necessary virtues.

8. The professed knight possessed various privileges and dignities which were not confined to the territories of his own sovereign, but extended through a greater part of Europe. He could roam where he pleased in quest of adventures, and was at liberty to challenge to single combat all those of his Order that he met. The laws of the institution made it the duty of every knight to protect the chastity and honor of ladies, and forbade him to speak disrespectfully of them, or to suffer others to do so in his presence. It was, moreover, incumbent upon him to warn them against the commission of anything that might lower them in his opinion. Strictly decorous and respectful towards them himself, he expected that they would never forfeit their claim to his esteem. If, however, a lady transgressed the laws of decorum or prudence, he did not fail to stigmatize her fault in the most pointed manner. If he passed the castle of one of this character, he marked it in some striking manner as the dwelling of a lady unworthy to receive a true chevalier.

9. Chivalry enjoined, in a special manner, the three virtues of hospitality, humanity, and courtesy. Every loyal knight was expected to have the door of his castle constantly open. As soon as one chevalier entered the castle of another, he considered himself at home, and was treated as if he were one of the family. Everything that could contribute to his comfort and his luxury was at his command. If he arrived wounded, every possible care was taken of him by the ladies,

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What was the concluding ceremony?—7. What were the equipments of a knight? What were his endowments? His virtues?—8. What did the professed knight possess? What did the rules of the institution oblige every knight to do? If a lady transgressed the laws of decorum, what did he do?—9. What did Chivalry enjoin? As soon as one chevalier entered the castle of another, what did he consider?

who were proud of having in their possession the remedies proper for such occasions. To a vanquished foe the most scrupulous and delicate attention was paid; he was treated rather as a conqueror than as one who had been conquered.

10. **Tournaments and Jousts.**—Tournaments were military exercises performed by two parties of cavaliers, with hurtless weapons. No amusement was more patronized by the knights, or even the sovereigns themselves, than these images of war, which were often celebrated with a splendor beyond description, particularly at coronations, royal marriages, and after important victories. If the occasion was solemn, it was announced at the courts of different sovereigns, who were invited to attend. Not only knights, but even kings and princes, who valued themselves upon their valor and gallantry, frequently entered the list.

11. At a tournament the place enclosed for the combatants was surrounded by sovereigns and other nobles, by knights of distinguished fame, and by ladies of the highest rank, who were always appointed judges on these occasions—a privilege, however, which they seldom exercised, generally deputing their authority to a knight, who on that account was called the Knight of Honor. When the knights reached the lists their arms were examined by the constables, in order that only hurtless weapons might be used. But, notwithstanding this precaution, there existed, in many instances, a disposition to convert the tournament into a real battle, and thus much blood was often uselessly spilt.

12. Nothing but the reality could exceed the performance of these hazardous and animating scenes. Frequently lances were broken, horses and knights were overthrown, and sometimes, though seldom, death ensued. While the tide of victory flowed to either side of the lists, the air was rent with the acclamations of the ladies, the minstrels, and the whole assembled multitude, while the successful knight was greeted with triumphal honors little inferior to those bestowed on a hero returning wreathed with the laurels of victory over a vanquished foe. The Catholic Church was justly hostile to

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If he arrived wounded, what was done?—10. What were tournaments? What is said of them? If the occasion was solemn, what was done?—11. At a tournament, by whom was the place surrounded? Who was the Knight of Honor? When they reached the lists, what was done?—12. What frequently took place? What is said of the Catholic Church?

tournaments, refusing the rite of Christian burial to those who fell on the tilting-ground.

13. Jousts were generally combats between two knights, and usually took place at the conclusion of the tournaments. A knight who had acquired distinguished fame would ride through the lists and call on the surrounding cavaliers to encounter him in three strokes of the lance. If the challenge was accepted, the combat was conducted according to specified rules, but such was the dexterity of the combatants that the encounter with the lance seldom proved fatal.

14. The origin of the duel, which, happily, is now little used as a mode of private revenge, may be traced to the Gothic nations. Under the Feudal System and during the age of Chivalry it was greatly patronized, and it so far prevailed, at an early period, among the Franks and the nations of Germany, that none were exempt from it but women, invalids, and such as were under the age of twenty-one and above the age of sixty. It was resorted to as a method of discovering truth, establishing innocence, and vindicating the character from a real or imaginary imputation. It is not surprising that a practise so absurd should have found adherents during those ages when the profession of arms was regarded as the only honorable employment, and at a time when the human mind was, comparatively speaking, unenlightened.

15. Whatever opinions we may entertain of Chivalry at the present day, it certainly had a powerful influence in producing a favorable change in the manners of society during the ages in which it existed. It infused humanity into war at a period when men made it almost a business of life; it introduced courteous manners among those who possessed but little refinement; it fostered in its maxims a delicate sense of honor and a scrupulous adherence to truth; it cherished the finest feelings and a respectful attachment towards the female sex; and, perhaps, no institution ever had a more powerful influence in raising woman to her proper sphere than that of Chivalry.

16. Chivalry embraced various orders or associations of cavaliers, formed for specific purposes, generally of a benevolent character, many of which remain to the present time.

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13. What were jousts? How was the challenge given? If accepted, what was done?—14. Where may the origin of the duel be traced? For what was it resorted to? Was it not surprising?—15. What had Chivalry? What did it infuse? What did it introduce and foster? What did it cherish?—16. What did Chivalry embrace?

These orders were generally of two descriptions, namely, military and religious, and were established in different countries, particularly in Palestine, England, Spain, France, and Italy. The foundation of the Order of the Knights Hospitallers, who afterwards became so famous as the Knights of Malta, was laid about the middle of the eleventh century by a few Neapol'itan merchants, who obtained permission of the Saracen Caliph to erect at Jerusalem a house for pilgrims. They afterwards founded, in honor of St. John, a church and hospital, from which they took their name, and, besides attending to the sick and to pilgrims, they bound themselves by vow to defend the Christians of the Holy Land against the insults of the Infidels. Thus the Hospitallers, without ceasing to be a religious, became a military order.

17. The Order of the Knights Templars was instituted in the year 1118, also at Jerusalem, by several French and Flemish noblemen. They occupied a house in the city which stood near the site of Solomon's Temple, from which they derived their name. The Teutonic Order was established by a few noblemen from the cities of Bremen and Lubeck about 1190, and was intended for the relief of the German pilgrims.

Where was the foundation of the Knights Hospitallers laid? What church did they build?—17. When and where was the Order of the Knights Templars instituted? When was the Teutonic Order established?

ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150
FRANCE
A.D.420 – A.D.1774.
CHAP. I TO VI.
Bunkirk
Calais
Cressy
Agincourt
Cambray
St Quentin
Malplaquet
Sedan
Aix la Chapelle
Rhine R
Danube R
Amiens
Guise
Rheims
Marne R
Metz
ALSACE
LORRAINE
Paris
Chalons
Melun
NORMANDY
BRITTANY
MAYENNE
ORLEANS
Orleans
Loire R
ANJOU
Tours
TOURRAINE
Sully
BURGUNDY
Poitiers
POITOU
Fontenay
Rochelle
Bourbon
Saone R
FRANCHE COMTE
Besançon
Burlemont
SWITZERLAND
L. Geneva
L. Constance
SAVOY
Faillesbourg
Angoulesme
Lyons
Vienne
Alps
Turin
DAUPHINY
Bordeaux
GUIENNE
Dordogne R
Lot R
Rhone R
LANGUEDOC
PROVENCE
Bayonne
GASCONY
Languedoc Canal
Nismes
Aix
Marseilles
Toulon
Foix
GULF OF LYONS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

BOOK VI

FRANCE

CHAPTER I

THE FOUNDATION OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY; MEROVIN'GIAN AND CARLOVINGIAN KINGS.—FROM A. D. 420 TO 987.

THE history of France is intimately connected with that of England, as the kings of the latter, for a long period, assumed the title of King of France, and held possessions in it of varied extent, from the time of William the Conqueror to the reign of Queen Mary. The kingdom of France was originally possessed by the Celts or Gauls, a brave and warlike people, who were reduced by the Roman power in the time of Julius Cæsar. The Franks, from whom the country receives its name, emerging from the forests of Germany, made an irruption into Gaul about the year 420, and gradually increased in power under their successive kings, Phar'amond, Clo'dio, Merove'us, and Chil'deric.

2. In 481, Clo'vis, the son of Childeric, became king of the Franks, and is generally regarded as the founder of the French monarchy. He embraced Christianity through the influence of his virtuous queen, Clotil'da, the daughter of the Duke of Burgundy, and received Baptism on Christmas day. His example was immediately followed by three thousand of his subjects. Clovis made Paris the seat of his government, and after a long and prosperous reign, left his kingdom, according to the custom of the country, divided among his four sons, A. D. 511.

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the history of France? By whom was the kingdom originally possessed? What is said of the Franks? —2. What is said of Clovis? What did he embrace? How did he leave his kingdom?

3. In the year 690, Pep'in d'Heristal' became Mayor of the Palace, the first office under the crown; at his death he was succeeded in the office by his son, Charles Martel', one of the most renowned warriors of his age. He defeated the Saracens in a sanguinary battle between Tours and Poictiers, in which, according to many historians, three hundred thousand of the enemy were slain, while the French lost only about fifteen hundred. Charles was succeeded in the office of Mayor by his son, Pepin the Short, who continued to govern France for several years, while the weak and indolent Childeric III was nominally king.

4. Such was the state of things when Pepin first thought of assuming the title and ensigns of royalty, while exercising the duties of the sovereign. Finding the people friendly to his views, and having obtained a favorable answer* from Pope Zachary, who had been consulted on the subject, he finally concluded to prosecute his design. Accordingly, in a great assembly of the people, he was proclaimed king, while Childeric was removed to a monastery, where he died three years after this event; and with him ended the dynasty of the Merovin'gian sovereigns, A. D. 752.

5. About this period the Lombards, who were already masters of a great part of Italy, aimed at subduing the whole, and had extended their conquests over the province of Raven'na. Even Rome itself was on the point of falling into their hands, when Pope Stephen applied for assistance to the Emperor of Constantinople, in whose name the government of Rome was still exercised. But Constantine, who was at that time too much engaged in his disputes with the Church to give his attention to the affairs of state, neglected to send assistance to the Romans, who in their extremity were obliged to turn for aid to the king of the Franks.

6. Pepin immediately responded to the call, but previous to any act of hostility, he sent, at the Pope's request, deputies to Astol'phus, the king of the Lombards, requesting

* The answer of the Pope was in the following words: "It were better that he should be king, in whom the sovereign authority resides."—*Eginhard, Annal.*

3. When did Pepin become mayor of the palace? What is said of Charles Martel? By whom was Charles succeeded?—4. Finding the people favorable to his views, what did Pepin do? What became of Childeric?—5. What is said of the Lombards? What did Pope Stephen do? What is said of Constantine? To whom did the Romans next turn for aid?—6. What did Pepin do?

EUROPE
IN THE TIME OF
CHARLES THE GREAT
814.
Roman Empire of th
Roman Empire of th
and its dependent St
ORKNEY IS.
SHETLAND IS.
THE HEBRIDES
IONA
Lindisfarne
Tees R.
Whitby
York
Humber R.
R. Elbe
Hamburg
Paderborn
New Orbery
AACHEN
(Aix-la-Chapelle)
Canterbury
London
Paris
Verdun
Frankfurt
BOHEMIA
Chalons
Tours
St. Gall
Geneva
Lyons
AQUITANIA
Milan
Venice
GASCONY
Arles
Ravenna
Spala
CANTABRIA
SPANISH MARCH
Saragossa
EMIRATE
OF
CORDOVA
Lisbon
Tagus R.
Toledo
Seville
CORDOVA
Granada
Xeres
Cadiz
Guadiana R.
Guadalquivir R.
Strait of Gibraltar
Ceuta
Tangier
MOROCCO
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ROME
M. CASSINO
Naples
Salerno
Amalfi
Palermo
SICILY
Carthage
Syracuse
Kairouan
MALTA
Tripoli
Suevi
Saxons
Frisians
Angles
Jutes
Britons
Franks
AUSTRASIA
NEUSTRIA
BURGUNDIA
ITALY
CALIPHATE
5
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35
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45
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25
N.
S
Novgorod
Kief
Dnieper R.
Chersonesus
Danube R.
CONSTANTINOPLE
Philippopolis
Adrianopleo
Nicomedia
BITHYNIA
Ancora
Nicæa
Dorylæum
PHRYGIA
Philadelphia
Iconium
Trapezus
(Trebisond)
Araxes R.
Edessa
Nineveh
MESOPOTAMIA
Tigris
Antioch
Aleppo
RHODES
CRETE
CYPRUS
Berytus
Sidon
Tyre
Damascus
Ptolemais
(Acre)
Tiberias
Nazareth
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Ascalon
Pelusium
Alexandria
Cæsarea
Gaza
BAGDAD
Ctesiphon
Cufa
Euphrates
Western Caliphate
Eastern Caliphate
Medina
Mecca

him to desist from his hostile designs. His proposals, however, were only answered by threats and insults. Pepin, therefore, hastily collected his army, crossed the Alps, defeated the Lombards, and obliged Astolphus to accept humiliating conditions of peace. But scarcely had he departed from Italy when the perfidious Astolphus recommenced hostilities, and laid siege to Rome. Pepin a second time crossed the Alps, and having again defeated the Lombards, solemnly bestowed on Pope Stephen and his successors in the Pontifical chair his conquests in Italy. Thus began the Temporal Power of the Popes, A. D. 755.

7. Pepin was succeeded by his two sons, Charles and Car'loman, but the latter dying shortly after the death of his father, Charles was left in possession of the undivided sovereignty. This distinguished monarch, known in history by the name of Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, is said to have been seven feet in height, of a robust constitution and majestic appearance. He was eminent as a statesman, and as a warrior he far surpassed all the sovereigns of his age. He carried on a long and sanguinary war with the Saxons, which finally resulted in the reduction of their whole country. At the earnest solicitation of the Romans, he turned his arms against the Lombards, who, under their king, Desiderius or Didier, had broken the treaty concluded by Astolphus, and spread their ravages so as to endanger the city of Rome. He defeated them, and completely destroyed their power in Italy. He afterwards conquered a part of Spain, and about the year 800 the rank and title of Emperor of the West was conferred on him by Pope Leo III.

8. His empire comprised France, Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, a part of Italy, and Spain. He labored incessantly to diffuse a spirit of literature, and to encourage the useful arts, throughout his vast dominions. He invited to his court, from foreign countries, men distinguished for their genius; among whom was Al'cuin, a learned and virtuous English monk, who opened an academy in the palace of the French monarch. Charlemagne himself, with his sons, frequently assisted at the lectures of this distinguished man.

How were the proposals answered? What was the result? What did Pepin do after crossing the Alps a second time?—7. By whom was Pepin succeeded? What is said of this monarch? At the solicitation of the Romans, what did he do? What title was conferred on him?—8. What did his empire comprise? What did he labor to diffuse? Whom did he call to his court?

With regard to his table, he was extremely frugal, and in his dress he was generally plain. The ladies of his court were usually employed at the needle or distaff, and he even took delight in appearing ornamented with the productions of his wife and daughters.

9. Charlemagne died in 814, in the seventy-first year of his age, and forty-seventh of his reign. He was succeeded by his son, Louis I, surnamed le De'bonnaire, or the Pious. The reign of this monarch was inglorious, and rendered unhappy by the unnatural rebellion of his sons, who twice deposed and imprisoned their father, and again restored him to the throne. Louis died in 840, leaving his dominions divided among his three sons.

Charles II presided over France; Louis obtained Germany; and Lothair'e reigned in Italy, under the title of Emperor. Bitter contentions between the three brothers soon involved their subjects in sanguinary wars. Charles and Louis united their forces against Lothaire, who endeavored to deprive them of their inheritance. The rival brothers at length met in the famous battle of Fontenoy, where Lothaire was defeated, and compelled to retire to his Italian dominions. The loss on both sides, in this battle, is estimated at one hundred thousand men.

10. Charles, after a weak reign, was succeeded by his son Louis, the stammerer, who, after a short reign, left his kingdom to his two sons, Louis III and Carloman. After the death of these princes, Charles the Fat was elected to the throne, but he governed with so much weakness that he was deposed, and the crown transferred to Eudes, during the minority of Charles the Simple, who afterwards succeeded to the throne. During the reign of this prince the Normans, under their celebrated chief, Rol'lo, invaded Neus'tria, and established themselves in the north of France, which from them took the name of Nor'mandy, A. D. 912. The remaining kings of the Carlovin'gian line were generally weak princes, and their reigns were not distinguished for any remarkable events. After the death of Louis V, who died without issue, the French Lords refused as his successor his

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What is said of him with regard to his table, etc.?—9. When did Charlemagne die? By whom was he succeeded? What was the reign of this monarch? How did he leave his dominions? What is said of Charles and Louis? Where did the rival brothers meet? What was the loss on both sides?—10. By whom was Charles succeeded? Who was next elected? During the reign of this prince, what took place?

uncle Charles, Duke of Lorraine, and transferred the crown to Hugh Ca'pet, Duke of France, who, after defeating his rival, obtained possession of the throne, and thus formed the third, or Capetian race of French kings, A. D. 987.

CHAPTER II

THE CAPETIAN KINGS. FROM HUGH CAPET TO PHILIP VI OF VALOIS.—A. D. 987 TO 1328.

HUGH CAPET was an able sovereign, and his administration was directed with wisdom. He enacted several salutary laws, added considerably to his territory, and again made Paris the seat of government. Either through modesty, or a fear of exciting the jealousy of his nobles, he never assumed the ensigns of royalty; even on great and solemn occasions he appeared in a plain and simple dress.

2. Robert, the son of Hugh, succeeded his father in 996. This prince is described as handsome in person and gentle in disposition, but his reign presents few events of importance. His son, Henry I, succeeded to the throne in 1031; his reign was generally tranquil and free from any extraordinary incidents. The reign of Philip, who succeeded his father in 1080, was distinguished for the preaching of the First Crusade by Peter the Hermit, and the invasion of France by William the Conqueror. The latter event laid the foundation of that long continued rivalry and series of hostilities which for several succeeding centuries existed between France and England.

3. Philip died in 1108, and left his dominions to his son, Louis VI, surnamed the Fair, an able and accomplished sovereign, who enjoyed a useful and prosperous reign. On his death-bed he addressed his son, who succeeded him, in the following words: "Remember that royalty is nothing more than a public charge, of which you must render a very strict account to Him who makes kings and will judge them." Louis VII was the next sovereign who swayed the sceptre

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After the death of Louis V, to whom was the crown transferred?

CHAPTER II.—1. What is said of Hugh Capet? What did he never assume?—2. Who succeeded? What is said of him? Who was the next sovereign? By what was the reign of Philip distinguished?—3. To whom did Philip leave his dominions? On his death-bed, how did he address his son? Who was the next sovereign?

of France. In conjunction with Conrad III, of Germany, he headed the third Crusade to Palestine, but was most unfortunate in that expedition. Louis had married El'eanor, heiress to the great duchy of Guienne, but divorced her for her levity and vices. In a few weeks afterwards she married Henry Plantag'anet, Earl of Anjou, who, in the following year, became Henry II of England, and who, by his marriage, acquired a great addition to his possessions in France.

4. Philip II, surnamed Augustus, succeeded to the throne in 1180. No prince since the reign of Charlemagne surpassed Philip in military skill and enterprise. He signalized the commencement of his reign by the expulsion of the Jews from his dominions, and shortly afterwards joined his great rival, Richard I, of England, in the third Crusade. After the death of Richard, John, his brother, who succeeded him, was strongly suspected for having murdered Arthur, his nephew; for this he was summoned by Philip, as his vassal, to be tried by a court of his peers. But on his refusal, Philip invaded Normandy, and wrested that important province from the English monarch.

5. Philip died in 1223, and was succeeded by his son, Louis VIII, surnamed the Lion, on account of his valor. He died after a short reign of three years, on his return from an expedition against the Albigen'ses, who had disturbed the south of France. Louis IX, commonly called St. Louis, succeeded to the throne at the early age of twelve years; and during his minority his mother, Blanche, of Castile, filled the office of regent, in which she displayed great ability. In the person of St. Louis were united all those eminent qualities that distinguish an illustrious sovereign with all the virtues that adorr the Christian. His benevolence, piety, and purity of intention are conspicuous in every action. In the early part of his reign he vigorously repelled the invasion of Henry III of England, whom he signally defeated near Taillebourg, and finally compelled to sign a treaty of peace. His zeal for religion prompted him to engage in the last two Crusades. This illustrious monarch died of fever near Tunis, in the

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What did he do? Whom did he marry?—4. Who next succeeded to the throne? What were the principal events of his reign?—5. By whom was Philip succeeded? When did he die? By whom was he succeeded? In the person of St. Louis, what were united? In the early part of his reign what was done? In what did he engage? Where did he die?

fifty-sixth year of his age, and the forty-fourth of his reign, A. D. 1270.

6. St. Louis was succeeded by his son, Philip III, surnamed the Hardy, who continued the war against the Infidels with vigor. He defeated the Saracens, and compelled the king of Tunis to conclude a peace on terms favorable to the Christians. Philip IV, surnamed the Fair, from the beauty and elegance of his person, succeeded to the throne in 1285. One of the most remarkable events of the reign of this monarch was the suppression of the Order of the Knights Templars. Charges of the gravest nature being brought against them, Philip ordered all the Templars of his kingdom to be arrested on the same day.

A committee was appointed at Paris, before which one hundred and forty Knights were examined, all of whom, with the exception of three, freely acknowledged themselves guilty of the denial of Christ, of sacrilege, and other enormous crimes.

7. But as the persons accused belonged to an order which was religious as well as military, it became necessary to refer the matter to the ecclesiastical authorities. Accordingly, a General Council was convened by Pope Clement V at Vienne, before which the investigation into the conduct of the Templars and their trials, which had now occupied nearly five years, was laid. After a deliberation of several months the Order was suppressed, and the property belonging to it was transferred to the Order of the Knights Hospitallers of St. John, who were still fighting the battles of Christendom against the Infidels, from whom they had lately recovered the island of Rhodes. It appears that the Order of the Templars, though generally corrupt, was not equally so in all places, which fact accounts for the different treatment its members received in different countries. Many were acquitted, particularly in Germany and Spain; some were condemned to perpetual or temporary imprisonment; while others, who, instead of repenting, obstinately repeated the free avowal of their guilt, were delivered to the secular power, to be punished according to the rigor of the law. Fifty-nine were burnt at Paris, and several others in the south of France.

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6. By whom was St. Louis succeeded? Who was the next sovereign? What was one of the most remarkable events of his reign? Of what did they acknowledge themselves guilty?—7. But as the persons accused, etc., what became necessary? Where was a Council convened? After a deliberation of several months, what was done? What appears? How many were burnt at Paris?

8. Philip died in 1314, leaving his dominions to his son, Louis X, surnamed the Wrangler, who was succeeded, after a reign of a few months, by his brother, Philip V, whose short reign was distinguished for his severity against the Jews. With the succession of Charles IV ended the Capetian line of kings, A. D. 1328.

CHAPTER III

BRANCH OF VALOIS; FROM PHILIP VI TO CHARLES VIII.—A. D. 1328 TO 1498.

ON the death of the late monarch the crown devolved upon Philip of Valois, the grandson of Philip III, the nearest male heir; according to the laws of the kingdom, females were excluded from the throne. His succession, however, was disputed by Edward III of England, who claimed the crown of France in right of his mother, Isabel'la, the daughter of Philip the Fair. Philip maintained that a mother could not transmit to her issue a right which she never possessed, and the case being laid before the peers and barons of France, they unanimously declared in his favor.

2. In the meantime, Edward prepared to enforce his claim by an appeal to arms. He invaded France with an army of thirty thousand men, and gained the famous battle of Cressy, in which his eldest son, the Black Prince—so called from the color of his armor—first displayed those splendid military abilities which afterwards rendered him so illustrious. Edward, pursuing his good fortune, besieged and took Calais, which remained in the hands of the English until the reign of Queen Mary. It was during the reign of Philip that the title of Dauphin was given to the eldest son of the king of France; this was derived from the province of Dauphiné, which had just been acquired.

3. Philip died in 1350, and was succeeded by his son, John II, surnamed the Good. It was during the reign of this prince that the famous battle of Poictiers was fought, in which Edward, the Black Prince, added to the glory which

8. Where did Philip die? Who were the next two sovereigns? On the accession of Charles IV, what took place?

CHAPTER III.—1. By whom was the succession of Philip disputed? What did Philip maintain?—2. In the meantime, what did Edward do? What battle did he gain? What did he take?—3. By whom was Philip succeeded? During his reign what took place?

he had already gained at Cressy. The French monarch, at the head of sixty thousand men, advanced against the prince, whose army did not exceed sixteen thousand men; still, notwithstanding the disparity of numbers, the scale of victory turned in favor of the English. The French were signally defeated; their king fell into the hands of the conquerors, and was led captive to London. The conduct of the prince towards the fallen monarch deserves the highest commendation. He endeavored to console him in his misfortune, waited on him at table, and, in every manner in his power, manifested towards him the utmost courtesy and respect. John was afterwards released on condition that he should pay one million five hundred thousand pounds sterling as the price of his ransom. But on his return to France, finding himself unable to comply with his engagement, he returned again to England, saying that, "If honor were banished from every other place, it should find an asylum in the breasts of kings." He was received with every mark of respect by Edward, who assigned him, as his residence, Savoy Palace, where he shortly afterwards died, A. D. 1364.

4. On the death of John, Charles V, surnamed the Wise, succeeded to the throne. This distinguished prince labored incessantly to retrieve the losses of the preceding reign, and so successful was he in his efforts, that in the course of a few years the English were expelled from all their possessions in France, with the exception of Calais, Bayonne, and Bordeaux. Charles himself did not appear in the field, but from his cabinet directed the operations of his armies by his wise and prudent counsels. He raised to the office of constable of France the celebrated Du Guesclin', one of the greatest generals of the age. Besides being an eminent statesman, Charles was a distinguished patron of literature. He possessed a library of nine hundred volumes, which was a considerable number for the period, when the art of printing was yet undiscovered; and he may be regarded as the founder of the present magnificent library of Paris. On his death, in 1380, his son, Charles VI, surnamed the Well-Beloved, ascended the throne.

5. The reign of this sovereign was signally unfortunate. He fell into a state of insanity, which rendered him incapable

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What is said of the conduct of the prince? Of John? On returning to England, what did he say?—4. Who succeeded to the throne? What is said of him? Of what was Charles a patron? By whom was he succeeded?—5. What is related of this monarch?

of attending to the administration of the government. In consequence of the king's incapacity, regents were appointed, whose misconduct threw the kingdom into a civil war. During these calamities which afflicted France, Henry V of England invaded the country, and gained the memorable battle of Agincourt. The consequence of this victory, and other advantages gained by Henry, enabled him to conclude a treaty by which his succession to the throne of France was acknowledged on the death of Charles. Henry and Charles both died shortly after this event, A. D. 1422.

6. Charles VII, surnamed the Victorious, asserted his right to the throne of his father, while at the same time the infant, Henry VI of England, was proclaimed king of France, under the regency of his uncle, the Duke of Bedford. The English laid siege to Orleans, a place of the greatest importance, and so successful were they in their operations against this and other places, that the affairs of France began to wear a most gloomy aspect. The tide of misfortunate, however, was successfully turned by one of the most extraordinary events recorded in history.

7. When the hope of saving Orleans was almost abandoned, a young girl named Joan of Arc, about seventeen years of age, who had lived an humble life in a village on the borders of Lorraine, presented herself to the Governor of Vaucouleurs, and maintained with much earnestness that she had been sent by Divine commission to raise the siege of Orleans, and procure the coronation of Charles in the city of Rheims. After undergoing a most rigid examination before a committee of persons appointed for that purpose, and also before the court and the king himself, it was generally admitted that the commission was supernatural. She was accordingly intrusted with the liberation of Orleans. As she approached the city, her presence inspired the inhabitants with confidence, while it spread dismay and consternation among the English, who hastily raised the siege and retired with precipitation, but being pursued by the heroine at the head of the French army, they were entirely defeated at Patay, with a loss of nearly five thousand men, while the French lost only one of their number. From this event Joan was called the Maid of Orleans.

During these calamities, who invaded France? What was Henry enabled to do?—6. What is said of Charles VII? To what place did the English lay siege?—7. When the hope of saving Orleans was almost abandoned, what is related? As she approached the city, what is said of her?

JOAN OF ARC.

8. The second part of her mission, which yet remained to be accomplished, was equally arduous and dangerous. The city of Rheims and the intermediate country being in possession of the English or their allies, presented apparently insurmountable difficulties. Charles, however, placing full confidence in her guidance, commenced his march, and as he advanced every obstacle disappeared; the citizens of Rheims, having expelled the garrison, received him with every demonstration of joy. After the coronation was performed, Joan threw herself at the feet of Charles, declaring that her commission was accomplished, and solicited leave to return to her former humble station; but the king, unwilling to part with her services so soon, requested her to remain for some time with the army, with which at length she complied. She afterwards attempted to raise the siege of the city of Compiègne; but good fortune seemed to have deserted her. This wonderful girl fell into the hands of the English, who, to gratify their revenge for the many losses they sustained through her valor, condemned her, under a charge of various pretended crimes, and caused her to be burnt in the public square at Rouen! It is not known that Charles made any effort to save her.

9. By this cruel measure the English hoped to check the success that had attended the operations of Charles. In this, however, they were disappointed. Such was the impulse which the heroine had given to the affairs of France that the English in a few years were expelled from all their possessions in the country, with the exception of Calais. Charles passed the remainder of his reign in improving the internal conditions of his kingdom. The close of his life was embittered by the unnatural conduct of his son, who attempted to poison his father. He died in 1464, a prince of acknowledged virtue, justice, and discretion.

10. Louis XI, who succeeded to the throne, was distinguished for the cruelty and tyranny exercised against his subjects. He left, however, some good regulations for the encouragement of commerce and the promotion of justice. His severity occasioned a revolt, which was called "the war of the public good." His sanguinary disposition was dis-

8. What is said of the city of Rheims? What did Charles do? After the coronation, what did Joan do? What was her fate?—9. What is said of the impulse which the heroine had given to the affairs of France? How did Charles pass the remainder of his reign? —10. What is said of Louis XI?

played on a certain occasion, when he pronounced the sentence of death on one of his nobles. He ordered that the children of the unfortunate victim should be placed under the scaffold, that they might be sprinkled with the blood of their dying parent. His own life was rendered miserable, particularly towards the close, from the knowledge that he was despised by his subjects, and from the terrors of a guilty conscience.

11. Charles VIII, the son of Louis, succeeded to the throne in 1483, at the age of thirteen years, under the regency of his sister, the Princess Ann. His father had acquired a claim to the kingdom of Naples. The young king, on coming of age, undertook an expedition against that country, which he easily subdued. Charles, who was remarkable for the sweetness and affability of his disposition, died in the twenty-eighth year of his age, and with him ended the direct line of the house of Valois.

CHAPTER IV

FROM THE ACCESSION OF LOUIS XII TO THE REIGN OF HENRY III.—A. D. 1498 TO 1589.

THE Duke of Orleans, who was the nearest heir after the death of Charles, succeeded to the throne of France under the title of Louis XII. He was a wise and popular sovereign. By his frugal policy he greatly diminished the burden of taxes, and gained the title of the Father of his People. Being urged to punish those who had been his enemies during the preceding reign, he replied, "It is unworthy of the king of France to avenge the injuries done to the Duke of Orleans."

2. He reduced Milan and Genoa, and prosecuted his claim to Naples with some advantage, but was ultimately unsuccessful. He joined the League of Cambray against Venice, which, on account of its wealth, acquired by its commerce, excited the jealousy of its neighbors; but the confederates afterwards quarrelled among themselves, and a new league

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What did he leave? On pronouncing the sentence, what did he order?—11. Who succeeded Louis? For what was he remarkable?

CHAPTER IV.—1. What is said of the Duke of Orleans? What reply did he make when urged to punish, etc.?—2. What did he do?

was formed against France. The French, under the command of Gaston de Foix, Duke of Nemours, gained an important victory over the confederates at the battle of Ravenna, in which the duke lost his life. After the death of this distinguished general, Louis soon lost all his possessions in Italy, and was compelled to evacuate the country. Before he was able to recover these losses he suddenly died—an event which filled the hearts of his subjects with the deepest sorrow. The exclamation that "The good king is dead!" was heard on every side.

3. As the late king had died without leaving any male issue, his cousin, the Earl of Angoulême, ascended the throne under the title of Francis I. Francis, then in the flower of his age, was of a romantic disposition, and fond of military glory, and soon distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese. On the death of Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, in 1519, Francis and Charles I of Spain became rival candidates for the imperial crown. Charles was the successful candidate, and Francis, deeming himself injured, availed himself of this pretence for commencing hostilities against his rival.

4. His first operations against Navarre were successful; but an unfortunate misunderstanding taking place between Francis and the High Constable, De Bourbon, one of the ablest of his generals, the latter basely abandoned his country and his sovereign and offered his services to the Emperor Charles. Bourbon fought against the French in the battle of Biagrassa, in which they were defeated with the loss of their celebrated general, the illustrious Bay'ard, surnamed the Knight without fear and without reproach. Bourbon is said to have wept like a child over the dying hero. "Weep not for me," said the noble Bayard, "but for yourself. I die in the service of my country; you triumph in the ruin of yours."

5. Francis, now taking upon himself the command of the army, hastened into Italy and laid siege to Pavia, but was there defeated and taken prisoner by the imperialists under the command of Bourbon. After thirteen months of captivity, Francis obtained his liberty, and having crossed the

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What did the French gain under the command of Gaston de Foix? What is said of his death?—3. Who succeeded to the throne? What is said of Francis and Charles V?—4. What was the consequence of the misunderstanding between Francis and De Bourbon? What did Bayard say while Bourbon wept over him?—5. What did Francis now do? After he obtained his liberty, what is said of him?

boundary of his own dominions, he mounted his horse, and, waving his hat, he exclaimed, "I am yet a king!" The conditions on which he obtained his release were so unreasonable that Francis, on regaining his liberty, refused to comply with them. The violation of this treaty again involved the two rival sovereigns in another sanguinary war. The Sovereign Pontiff having declared in favor of Francis, Bourbon, who commanded for Charles, laid siege to Rome, but was killed in an attempt to storm the walls. The city, however, was taken, and for two months abandoned to the pillage of the infuriated soldiery, during which time it presented a scene of ruinous desolation, more frightful than that which it endured when it fell beneath the hand of the Goth or the Vandal.

6. After the war had raged for some time with but little advantage on either side, a truce was concluded, and the rival monarchs were brought to a personal interview at Aigues Mortes, in France, where the warmest expressions of friendship passed between them. The following year Charles obtained permission to pass through France on his way to the Netherlands; he remained for six days at Paris, where he was entertained with great magnificence. The war, however, was again renewed between the two sovereigns respecting Milan; it terminated unfavorably to Francis, who died shortly after peace was restored, in the fifty-second year of his age, A. D. 1547. Francis possessed, in many respects, the characteristics of a great sovereign. His impetuous courage, his frank and generous disposition, gained him the affection of his subjects. He was a liberal patron of literature and the arts, which made great progress in France during his reign, and owing to which the French court acquired that polish and refinement which have since rendered it so conspicuous.

7. Henry II, who succeeded Francis, was brave, affable, and polite. He inherited in some degree the abilities and the courage of his father. His reign, which continued for thirteen years, was almost one uninterrupted series of hostilities with Charles V and his son, Philip II, of Spain. Henry gained an important advantage over the imperialists at the siege of Metz, but Philip, in his turn, gained the famous victory of St. Quentin. The reign of Henry was also signalized

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What was the fate of Bourbon? What is said of the city?—6. After the war had raged for some time, what was concluded? What took place the following year? When did Francis die? What did he possess? Of what was he the patron?—7. Who succeeded Francis? With whom was he engaged in hostilities?

by the recovery of Calais, which was taken, after a siege of eight days, by the celebrated Duke of Guise, after it had remained in the possession of the English for two hundred and ten years. Henry's severity against the Hu'guenots gave rise to those destructive civil wars which, for several succeeding reigns, distracted and desolated France. His death was occasioned by an accident which happened to him at a tournament.

8. He was succeeded by his son, Francis II, who, after a short reign of one year, left the throne to his brother, Charles IX, then a boy in the tenth year of his age, who commenced his reign under the regency of his mother, Catharine de Med'icis. At this time the Protestant religion began to make considerable progress in France, and had gained the patronage of several distinguished men, among whom were the Prince of Condé and Admiral Colign'y. The leading men in the administration were the celebrated Duke of Guise and his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine. In order to bring about an accommodation and to settle the difficulties without further bloodshed, a conference was held at Poissy for the purpose of discussing the points in dispute between the Catholics and the Protestants. The conference was attended by the king and the most prominent personages of the court. The Protestant cause was supported by the famous Theodore Be'za, while the Catholic doctrine was defended by the distinguished Cardinal of Lorraine.

9. After this conference an edict was published granting important privileges to the Protestants. But the spirit of discontent still prevailed between the two parties, and the flame of civil war again burst forth, involving the fairest portion of France in devastation and ruin. The Catholics, under the command of the Dukes of Guise and Montmoren'cy, defeated the Huguenots, under the Prince of Condé and the Admiral Coligny, in several engagements. During the contest the Protestants lost their most able leader, the Prince of Condé, who fell in battle; while, on the other hand, Charles had to lament the loss of the firmest support of his throne, the Duke of Guise, who was cut off by assassination. Peace

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By what was his reign signalized? What occasioned his death?—8. Who were the next two sovereigns? What is said of the Protestant religion at this time? Who were the leading men in the administration? What was the object of the conference at Poissy?—9. After this, what was published? What is said of the spirit of discontent? During this contest whom did the Protestants lose? What had Charles to lament?

was at length restored, and the Protestants obtained toleration for the exercise of their religion.

10. The most memorable occurrence in the reign of Charles was the massacre of the Protestants, which took place on St. Bartholomew's Day. So various and contradictory are the accounts given of this lamentable event by different writers as to the number of the victims and the motives that prompted it, that it is a difficult task at the present time to arrive at the true state of the facts. On the occasion of the marriage of the sister of Charles to the king of Navarre, Coligny and other distinguished Protestant leaders were invited to court. During the celebration of the nuptial ceremonies various circumstances happened which contributed to bring about the odious measure that followed. As Coligny passed through the streets he was severely wounded by an assassin. The public voice attributed the attempt to the young Duke of Guise, in revenge for the murder of his father at the siege of Orleans. It proceeded, however, from the Queen-Mother, Catharine de Medicis, who was alarmed at the gradual influence which the admiral seemed to have been acquiring over the mind of Charles.

11. The wounds which Coligny had received were not dangerous; but his followers crowded to his residence. Their threats of vengeance terrified the queen, and in a secret council the king was prevailed upon to give his sanction to the destruction of the leaders of the Protestant party. From the close connection of events immediately preceding the massacre it would seem that it originated in the animosity of the French court against the Protestant leaders, and was dictated rather by a momentary impulse than by any studied or preconcerted plan. The young king, whose mind was harassed by the frequent revolts of the Huguenots against his authority, was only induced to consent to this cruel measure after the positive assurance of his mother and chief counsellors that his safety required that the leaders of the party should be cut off, and that if he waited until morning his most faithful officers, his family, and perhaps himself, would be sacrificed to their vengeance.

12. In this state of mind he gave his consent to the projected massacre, which took place during the night of the

10. What was the most memorable occurrence of the reign of Charles? During the celebration of the nuptials, what took place? From whom did it proceed?—11. In a secret council, what was the king prevailed on to do? From what would it seem to have originated? When was the king induced to consent to the cruel measure? —12. When did it take place?

twenty-third of August and a part of the day following. The residence of Coligny was forced, and he was put to death, with his principal counsellors. The populace joined in the work of blood, and every Huguenot who fell in their way was furiously sacrificed. Although the massacre was only intended for the capital, it extended to several provinces; the governors, though instructed to prevent similar excesses, had not always the power or the will to check the fury of the people, and the bloody tragedy of Paris was imitated in several other towns. With regard to the number of victims, it is impossible to speak with certainty. Some writers exaggerate the number to seventy thousand; others estimate thirty, twenty, or fifteen thousand. The Reformed Martyrologist adopted a means of ascertaining the real number by procuring from the ministers in the different towns where the massacres took place a list of the names of the persons who suffered. He published the result in 1582, and in all France he could discover the names of no more than seven hundred and eighty-six persons.

13. Charles, in order to palliate the shame of this murderous edict against the Huguenots, wrote to every court in Europe, stating that, having just detected their horrid plots against his authority and person, he was fortunate enough to escape from the imminent danger to which he was exposed by cutting off the leaders of the party. Many, deceived by this statement and yet unacquainted with the true nature of the facts, congratulated him on his good fortune. Among others, Pope Gregory XIII, on receiving the account of the transactions as given by Charles, offered up public thanks, not that he rejoiced at the death of the supposed traitors, but for the preservation of the French monarch and his kingdom from ruin.*

* "*Religion* had nothing to do with the massacre. Coligny and his fellow Huguenots were slain, *not* on account of their creed, but *exclusively* on account of their alleged treasonable designs. If they had nothing but their Protestant faith to render them odious to King Charles, they would never have been molested; for neither did Charles nor his mother ever manifest any special zeal for the Catholic Church, nor any special aversion to Protestantism, unless when it threatened the throne."—*Card. Gibbons.*

What was the fate of Coligny? With regard to the number of victims, what is said? What do some writers exaggerate it to? What was the number according to the Reformed Martyrologist?—13. What did Charles do in order to palliate the shame? What is said of Pope Gregory XIII? Was the massacre of the Huguenots a religious or a political measure? (See note.)

14. Charles did not long survive this event; he died shortly afterwards of a pulmonary complaint, and was succeeded on the throne by his brother, Henry III, a weak and fickle prince. In the beginning of his reign he granted important privileges to the Protestants, but he afterwards joined the League projected for the defence of the state and religion, and took the field against them. By this conduct he lost the confidence of both parties. He was finally assassinated by a Dominican named James Clement, in the fourth year of his reign, A. D. 1588.

CHAPTER V

THE HOUSE OF BOURBON. FROM HENRY IV TO THE DEATH OF LOUIS XV.—A. D. 1589 TO 1774.

ON the death of Henry III, the king of Navarre ascended the throne of France, under the title of Henry IV. He was afterwards called the Great. His accession was, however strongly opposed by a powerful party in the state. The Cardinal of Bourbon was proclaimed king of the army of the League, then under the command of the Duke of Mayenne, and took the title of Charles X. But the army was signally defeated by Henry in the famous battle of Ivry. The difficulties and dangers which surrounded Henry daily increased. He had been educated in the reformed religion, which he still continued to profess, while the greater part of his subjects were Catholics. The king began now seriously to turn his mind to the subject of religion, and, having asked several Protestant divines if he could be saved by professing the Catholic doctrine, and being answered in the affirmative, he concluded that it would be a safer policy, in his peculiar situation, to embrace that religion. Accordingly, in 1593, he abjured Protestantism and declared himself a Catholic.

2. The event was productive of beneficial results to France. His claim was immediately acknowledged by all orders of the state, and the destructive civil wars which had so long afflicted the kingdom were happily terminated. Henry, hav-

14. By whom was Charles succeeded? What is said of Henry? How did he die?

CHAPTER V.—1. On the death of Henry III, who ascended the throne? Who was declared king by the army of the League? In what had Henry IV been educated? What did he do in 1593?—2. Of what was this event productive?

ing gained quiet possession of the throne, was governed by principles of the wisest policy. By the celebrated Edict of Nantes, he granted to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion, confirmed all their rights and privileges, and gave them full admission into all offices of honor and emolument.

3. Henry now turned his attention towards the improvement of his kingdom. A civil war of nearly thirty years' duration had produced the most calamitous effects. The land was untilled, the people poor and wretched, the crown loaded with debt. But by the wise and prudent measures of the king these evils were soon removed, and prosperity began again to diffuse itself throughout the country. The wisest of his counsellors was the Baron de Rosny, afterwards Duke of Sully, in whom he found an able minister and a faithful friend.

4. Henry, by his great ability, having elevated France from the wretched condition in which he found it at his accession to the throne to a high state of prosperity and happiness, fell a victim to the fanaticism of a man named Francis Ravaillac, who had long planned his death. As the king rode through the streets of the capital he was accidentally stopped by some obstruction in the way. Ravaillac, who was always on the watch, seized this favorable moment, mounted on the wheel of the carriage, and stabbed the king twice before any one could oppose the wretched murderer. Thus fell Henry IV, who may justly be ranked among the greatest of the French monarchs, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, and in the twenty-first of his reign, A. D. 1610.

5. When the fatal event was made known in Paris, the whole city presented a scene of mourning. Ravaillac was seized and put to the most cruel tortures to induce him to confess the names of those who were his accomplices, but to the last he persisted in maintaining that no one except himself was concerned in the action. As a king, Henry was actually great. To promote the happiness of his people seems to have been his predominant passion; he was kind and familiar to the lowliest of his subjects, and was beloved by them to a degree bordering on enthusiasm. His private life was

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What did he do by the Edict of Nantes?—3. To what did he now turn his attention? Who was the wisest of his counsellors?—4. How did Henry die? Relate the circumstances of his death.—5. What is said of Paris when the news was made known? What is said of Henry as a sovereign?

far from being so commendable, and the manners of his courtiers were rendered profligate by the example of their sovereign.

6. Louis XIII, the son of the late monarch, succeeded to the throne at the age of nine years, under the regency of his mother, Mary of Medicis, who displeased the nobility by her partiality for Italians, and during her administration the kingdom relapsed into many disorders. Louis, on assuming the reins of government, chose for his prime minister the famous Cardinal Rich'elieu, one of the greatest men of his age. During the reign of this monarch the kingdom was again distracted by civil war; the Protestants attempted to throw off their allegiance and to establish an independent state, selecting Rochelle for the capital. Richelieu laid siege to this city, which finally surrendered after an obstinate resistance of twelve months. The fall of this city terminated the civil war and greatly weakened the Protestant power in France. A second rebellion was excited by the Duke of Orleans, the king's brother, and supported by the Duke of Montmorency; but it was finally crushed and Montmorency executed for treason.

7. The great ability of Richelieu was conspicuous in all his undertakings. While he extended the glory of France and commanded the respect of all the powers of Europe, he became also the zealous patron of literature and science, and founded the French Academy. He died in 1642, and was followed to the tomb in the succeeding year by Louis himself, in the forty-third year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign.

8. Louis XIV succeeded his father at the early age of five years, under the regency of his mother, Ann of Austria. She made choice of Cardinal Mazarin' for her prime minister. His administration was particularly distinguished by the defeat of the Spaniards at Rocroy, Freiburg, and Sens, who, taking advantage of the king's minority, had commenced hostilities. On the death of Mazarin, Louis, at the age of twenty-two, took upon himself the entire direction of the affairs of government. To the happy choice he made of his

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Of his private life?—6. Who succeeded to the throne? Who was chosen prime minister? During the reign of Louis, what is said of the kingdom? By whom was a second rebellion headed?—7. What is said of the abilities of Richelieu? When did he die?—8. Who succeeded? Who was made prime minister? How was his administration distinguished?

ministers may be attributed the brilliant achievements that distinguished the early part of his reign. The financial affairs were regulated by the famous Colbert′, an able and sagacious statesman; his armies were commanded by the Prince of Condé and Turenne, two of the greatest generals of the age, while the genius of Vauban′ was employed in fortifying his towns.

9. He subdued Franche Comté, which he annexed to France; conquered a part of Netherlands; overran Alsace, and twice desolated the Palatinate. Alarmed at the success that attended the arms of the French monarch, the League of Augsburg was formed, in which Holland, Spain, Sweden, and several of the German states united against him. In 1701, a second League was entered into by England, Germany, and Holland against the power of France. The splendid career of victory which marked the early part of his reign was now exchanged for a series of reverses which attended the close of his long and eventful life. His armies were no longer directed by those master spirits, Turenne and Condé; they had, moreover, to contend with the genius of the Duke of Marl′borough and Prince Eugene, who gained over them the celebrated victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, and, at the peace of Utrecht, Louis lost nearly all the advantages he had formerly gained.

10. Louis died in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and the seventy-third of his reign, A. D. 1715. His reign, which is one of the longest recorded in history, is illustrated by many brilliant achievements. The most impolitic measure of his long administration, and one that has incurred the censure of subsequent historians, was the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV for the toleration of the Protestant worship. By this act all the Protestant ministers who refused to abjure their tenets were commanded to quit the kingdom within the space of two months. As to the other Protestants, they were allowed to remain in France, where they might freely carry on their business, "without being molested or harassed on account of their religion," to use the words of the repealing act. Many, however, pre-

Who regulated the financial affairs? Who commanded his armies? —9. What did he do? What league was formed against him? In 1701, what was formed? What is said of his career of victory? What victories were gained by Marlborough and Prince Eugene?— 10. When did Louis die? What is said of his reign? What was the most impolitic measure? By this edict, what was commanded?

ferred to follow their ministers into exile; but the number of persons who thus went into banishment it is now impossible to ascertain. Some authors swell the number to five hundred thousand, while Larrey and Benoit, both Protestant writers, admit it to have been about two hundred thousand. The Duke of Burgundy, whose candor and ample means of research entitle him to credit, assures us that the French refugees did not exceed sixty thousand in all.

11. Although the king, with the advice of his ministers, adopted these severe measures against the Huguenots, it cannot be supposed that this portion of his subjects was entirely without blame; their frequent manifestations of hostility to the government, their many open revolts, which had plunged the kingdom into all the evils of civil war, might be offered as some palliation for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. To this may be added the fact that all the Protestant governments of Europe at the time exercised the most brutual severity against the Catholic portion of their subjects. This, however, is but a feeble excuse. One wrong does not justify another. In our own age, happily more liberal and enlightened, we disavow the savage and un-Christian spirit of persecution.

12. Louis is said to have been handsome in his person and to have excelled in all the polite accomplishments of the time. The love of glory was his ruling passion; this he pursued, not only by his military achievements and the splendor of his conquests, but also by the patronage which he gave to literature and science, by promoting all the useful arts, and by giving encouragement to commerce, manufactures, and public works. The capital was embellished, the palaces of Versailles and the Louvre were built; the Languedoc Canal and other useful works were constructed. The reign of Louis XIV has been styled the Augustan Age of French literature, and is distinguished for the number of eminent men who flourished during that period. Condé and Turenne at the head of the armies have acquired imperishable fame; Colbert in the cabinet; Bossue't, Fenelon', Massillon', and Bourdalou'e in sacred eloquence; Pas'cal and Descar'tes in

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What is said of the number who went into banishment? How many do some authors state?—11. What cannot be supposed? What might be offered as some palliation for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes? To this what may be added? What do we disavow?—12. What is said of Louis? What has his reign been styled? Mention some of the most distinguished men.

mathematics and philosophy; Racin'e, Molière, and Boil'eau in poetry.

13. Louis XV, the great-grandson of the late monarch, succeeded to the throne at the age of five years, under the regency of the Duke of Orleans. The Duchess of Ventadour was appointed governess to the young king, a lady well qualified for the important charge reposed in her. Louis, on coming of age, chose for his chief minister the virtuous and amiable Cardinal Fleury, who was then in the seventy-third year of his age, but still retained his vigor and activity till near ninety. By the wise and pacific counsels of this distinguished man the prosperity of France was revived and its tranquillity preserved for nearly twenty years.

14. After the death of Fleury, France was engaged in the war of the Austrian Succession, which took place on the death of the Emperor Charles VI. The two competitors for the imperial throne were Maria Teresa, the eldest daughter of the late Emperor, and Charles, the Elector of Bavaria. The claim of the former was supported by Great Britain, while the cause of the latter was espoused by France and Prussia. The English and their allies, under George II, gained the battle of Dettingen, and the French in their turn obtained the victory of the battle of Fontenoy. Peace was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and the claim of Maria Teresa was acknowledged.

15. In 1755 war was again renewed between England and France respecting their American possessions. This was terminated by the peace concluded at Paris in 1763, when the most important of the French possessions in North America were ceded to Great Britain. Louis died in 1774, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and in the fifty-ninth of his reign.

The reign of this monarch and that of his predecessor occupied the unexampled period of one hundred and thirty-one years.

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13. Who succeeded to the throne? Whom did Louis choose for his chief minister? By his wise counsels, what was revived?—14. In what was France engaged? Who were the two competitors? By whom were they supported? By what was peace restored?—15. In 1755, what war was renewed? How did it terminate? When did Louis die? What was the length of his reign? What period did these two monarchs occupy?

CHAPTER VI

LOUIS XVI AND HIS MISFORTUNES; THE REVOLUTION AND ITS EXCESSES.—FROM 1774 TO 1795.

LOUIS XVI, the grandson of the late king, succeeded to the throne in the twentieth year of his age. The situation of this virtuous and benevolent prince was beset with difficulties of no ordinary character. The prodigality of his predecessor had impoverished the nation and loaded the people with taxation; a general corruption of morals and contempt for religion were manifested by those who were at the head of the government; while the principles of atheism were widely disseminated through the dangerous writings of Voltair'e, Rousseau', and others.

2. The deranged state of the finances first claimed the attention of Louis. He placed at the head of this department Turgo't, an eminent statesman, and chose Malesherb'es as his prime minister. These distinguished men, after several unsuccessful attempts to remove the evils and to reform the abuses of the state, resigned their positions and retired from office. The celebrated Neck'er, a native of Geneva, having succeeded Turgot at the head of the finances, pursued the same system of economy and reform, but, becoming unpopular with the courtiers, he was finally removed.

3. About this period two commissioners from the United States arrived at Paris to solicit the aid of France in behalf of the Americans, who were then struggling for their independence against the power of Great Britain. Although the American envoys were at first denied an audience in a public capacity, still the cause in which their country was engaged excited the deepest sympathy among the French nobility and obtained many private volunteers, among whom the Marquis de Lafayet'te was the most conspicuous. When the news of the failure of Burgoyne's expedition reached Paris a favorable change took place in the French cabinet in regard to America. The queen, who had always favored the inter-

CHAPTER VI.—1. Who succeeded to the throne? What is said of his situation? What were manifested? What were disseminated?—2. What claimed the attention of Louis? Who was placed at the head of this department? Who succeeded Turgot?—3. At that period, who arrived at Paris? What is said of their cause? When the news of the failure of Burgoyne's expedition reached Paris, what took place?

FRANCE
A.D.1774 to 1901.
CHAPTER VI
Scale of Miles
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BALTIC SEA
G. of FINLAND
St Petersburg
RUSSIA
Moscow
Borodino
Smolensk
Dunaburg
Niemen R.
Tilsit
DENMARK
Hamburg
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Berlin
SAXONY
Dresden
GERMANY
Rhine R.
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
Waterloo
Amiens
Sedan
Frankfort
Saarbruck
Leipzig
Jena
Weissenberg
Rennes
Paris
Seine R.
Meluns
Chalons
Metz
Luneville
Worth
Ulm
BAVARIA
Munich
Hohenlinden
Ratisbon
Wagram
Austerlitz
Passburg
Vienna
Loire Riv.
FRANCE
Lyons
Rhone R.
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA
Dnieper Riv.
Sebastopol
Campo Formio
Magenta
Marengo
ITALY
Aigues Mortes
Toulon
Cannes
ADRIATIC SEA
Danube R.
BLACK SEA

est of the Americans, now espoused the cause for which they contended with renewed ardor. The king and his ministers, who had hitherto acted with caution and reserve, at length determined openly to acknowledge the independence of the United States. The American commissioners, Franklin and Deane, were received as public ambassadors, and in February, 1778, a treaty of amity and commerce was signed between France and the new republic. As soon as this event was made public, the English ambassador was immediately recalled from Paris, and war declared by Great Britain against France.

4. Various causes have been assigned to account for the French Revolution. The public debt, which had been greatly increased by the generous efforts of Louis in assisting the people of the United States in gaining their independence, left the state of the finances in the most embarrassed condition. The return of the French officers and soldiers after the successful termination of the American Revolution disseminated through France a spirit in favor of liberty and republican principles; a general corruption of morals and open contempt for religion became more prevalent, particularly among the higher orders of the state, while atheism and infidelity were daily increasing. These and other influences contributed to produce that fearful storm which spread devastation and blood over the plains of France and convulsed the whole continent of Europe.

5. After every plan for restoring the deranged condition of the finance had proved ineffectual, Louis convoked an assembly called the Notables, composed of persons selected from the highest orders of the state, to whom it was proposed to levy a tax on all classes without exception, in proportion to their prosperity; but they refused to sanction this measure, as they perceived it would subject them to some personal sacrifices. After this a demand was made for the convocation of the States-General, a body consisting of the three orders, nobility, clergy, and commons, which had not been assembled since the year 1614, and never had a regular existence.

6. The assembly of the States-General convened on the

In 1778, what was done? What was done by Great Britain?—4. What are some of the causes assigned as the origin of the French Revolution?—5. What did Louis convoke? What was proposed? After this, what demand was made?—6. When was the States-General convened?

5th of May, 1789, at Versailles, where it was addressed by the king in a mild and conciliatory speech. It was not long, however, before the members of the assembly disagreed among themselves. The commons, with such of the nobility and clergy as were disposed to join them, seized the legislative authority, declared themselves the representatives of the people, and styled themselves the National Assembly. Of this body Bailly was chosen president, while Mirabeau' and the Duke of Orleans (a man of the most abandoned character), were the two most prominent members. By the very first act of the National Assembly, Louis found himself, in a great measure, deprived of his authority; and all who refused to unite with the commons saw themselves excluded from power, and all their rights and privileges invaded.

7. While these things were taking place at Versailles an insurrection broke out in Paris which was characterized by the most ungovernable violence. The *Hotel des Invalides* was taken by surprise, and thirty thousand muskets were seized. The prison of the Bastile was demolished, the governor was cruelly put to death, and his head fixed upon a pike and carried through the streets amidst the shouts of the infuriated rabble. When the news of these violent proceedings reached Versailles the king hastened to the capital with the hope of being able to allay the tumult. He addressed the multitude with the warmest expressions of friendship, and succeeded in restoring a temporary calm; after this he again returned to Versailles. But scarcely had he departed, when the insurrection was renewed with increased violence. The infuriated populace directed their vengeance against all those whom they considered their oppressors, and the whole city of Paris was deluged in blood.

8. They finally proceeded to Versailles, and demanded that the king should return to the capital. In compliance with their request, the unfortunate monarch, accompanied by the royal family, left Versailles and proceeded on his way to Paris. He was, however, protected from violence through the influence and efforts of the Marquis de Lafayette, who commanded the national guard.

What did the commons do? Of this body, who was chosen president? By its first act, what did Louis find?—7. What broke out in Paris? What was done? When this news reached Versailles, what did Louis do? Against whom did the populace direct their vengeance?—8. Where did they proceed, and what did they demand? By whom was Louis protected?

9. The progress of the revolution now made rapid advances. The States-General underwent a change and was styled the National Assembly. The royal authority was nearly annihilated. The privileges of the nobles and clergy were abolished. The church lands were confiscated. The monasteries were suppressed, and France was divided into eighty-three departments.

The next measure of the National Assembly was the formation of a new constitution, and from this circumstance it was styled the Constituent Assembly.

10. In the meantime, Louis and the royal family escaped from the palace of the Tuileries, and reached the frontiers of the kingdom, when they were detected and again brought back to Paris. The new constitution was at length completed, and received the sanction of the king. It established a limited monarchy, and placed all orders of the state upon an equality. After this the assembly dissolved itself on the 30th of September, 1791. The next assembly that met, on the 1st of October, was styled the Legislative Assembly.

11. At an early stage of the revolution various political clubs were formed, among which the Jac'obin Club (so called from the place of its meeting) was the most predominant. This factious association long continued to possess a powerful influence in the capital and to govern the proceedings of the assembly. Another association, styled the Club of Cordeliers, surpassed the Jacobins in avowed contempt for religion, government and law. On the 21st of September, 1792, a new body was convened, styled the National Convention; at its first meeting the regal government was abolished, and France declared a republic. The next step was to consummate the drama. The king himself was arraigned at the bar to answer to various charges brought against him.

12. In vain did Louis refute the absurd charges of which he was accused. In vain did the eloquence of De Sèze vindicate his innocence; his enemies thirsted for his blood, and the sentence of death was pronounced against him. The ill-

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9. What is said of the progress of the revolution? How was France divided? What was the next measure of the National Assembly?—10. In the meantime, what did Louis do? What did the new constitution establish? What was the next assembly styled?—11. At an early stage of the revolution, what was formed? What were the two principal clubs? At the first meeting of the National Convention, what was done?—12. What is said of Louis? What sentence was pronounced against him?

fated monarch, who had passed through all these trying scenes with a fortitude not usually met with under similar circumstances, bowed in perfect resignation to that fate which he saw he was unable to avoid. On the 21st of January, 1793, after taking an affectionate leave of his queen, his children, and his sister, the Princess Elizabeth, who had attended him in the most trying scenes, he was led to the place of execution. With a firm step he ascended the scaffold; for a moment he surveyed the multitude with calm serenity, and then addressed them in a few words: "I die innocent; I pardon all my enemies, and I pray that France may not suffer for the blood she is about to shed." At this moment the noise of the drums drowned his voice; he then calmly placed his head under the guil'lotine, and as the axe descended, his confessor exclaimed, "Son of St. Louis, ascend to Heaven." Thus perished Louis XVI, in the thirty-ninth year of his age, a virtuous prince of noble character.

13. After the death of the king, his amiable and virtuous consort, Mar'ie Antoinet'te, was marked out for destruction. On the 16th of October, 1793, having received the sentence of death, she was brought from the prison, meanly clad, with her hands bound behind her, and conducted to the place of execution in a common cart, attended by her confessor, the parish priest of St. Landry. As she passed through the streets, she occasionally raised her tearful eyes, and gazed for a moment on the words Liberty and Equality inscribed on the houses. On the scaffold the royal lady conducted herself with her usual fortitude, until she was desired to lay her head upon the block; but at that awful moment she grew pale and became apparently insensible. She was beheaded amidst the brutal cries of *Vive la Republique.**

* It was of Marie Antoinette that the great Edmund Burke wrote: "It is now sixteen or seventeen years since I saw the Queen of France, then Dauphiness at Versailles, and surely never lighted on this orb, which she hardly seemed to touch, a more delightful vision. I saw her just above the horizon, decorating and cheering the elevated sphere she had just begun to move in, glittering like the morning star, full of life, and splendor, and joy. Oh! what a revolution, and what a heart must I have to contemplate without emotion that elevation and that fall! Little did I dream when she added titles of veneration to those of enthusiastic, distant, respectful love, that she

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On the 21st of January, what was done? What words did he address? What did his confessor exclaim?—13. Who was next marked out for destruction? On the 16th of October, what is said of her? As she passed the streets? On the scaffold?

14. During the May of 1794, the amiable and beautiful Princess Elizabeth, the sister of Louis, was brought forth to execution; and about a year later, the young Dauphin, an interesting child, died in prison of a disease contracted from confinement, and from the barbarous treatment he received from the guards. Of all the members of the royal family, the daughter of Louis, afterwards Duchess of Angoulême, was the only one who did not fall a victim to the furious storm that swept over France.

15. The National Convention was soon divided into furious factions, of which the principal were the Mountain party, headed by Robespier're, Dan'ton, and Mar'at, men of the most unparalleled cruelty and depravity; and the Girondists, of which Brisso't, Vergniau'd, and Condorce't were the leaders, and were less extravagant in their opinions. The Mountain party, under Robespierre and his associates, whose bloody dominion is styled "the Reign of Terror," having gained the ascendency, committed the most fearful massacres. Brissot and Vergniaud, the leaders of the Girondists, with twenty of their partisans, fell a sacrifice to the vengeance of the predominant faction. That monster of vice and cruelty, the Duke of Orleans, suffered the same fate from the hands of those very men whom he had been instrumental in bringing into power.

16. The Convention now indulged in mad schemes and the most extravagant excesses. The Christian religion was suppressed, and a decree passed, declaring that the only deities thereafter to be worshipped in France should be Liberty, Equality, and Reason. Nearly everything sacred was swept away. A republican calendar was established. The Sunday was abolished, and in its place every tenth day was appointed as a day of rest. The churches were despoiled of their orna-

should ever be obliged to carry the sharp antidote against disgrace concealed in that bosom; little did I dream that I should have lived to see such disasters fallen upon her in a nation of gallant men—in a nation of men of honor and of cavaliers. I thought ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult. But the age of chivalry is gone; that of sophists, economists, and calculators has succeeded, and the glory of Europe is extinguished forever!"—*Reflections on the Revolution in France.*

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14. During the May of 1794, what was done? About a year later? —15. How was the National Convention divided? What is said of the Mountain party? Of Brissot, etc.? Of the Duke of Orleans?— 16. What was done by the convention? What is said of the churches?

ments and treasures; even the bells were melted and cast into cannon.

17. After these wild and impious proceedings, the Convention was again divided into two violent parties; Robespierre at the head of one, and Danton the leader of the other. Robespierre prevailed, and his most conspicuous opponents were brought to the guillotine; but his own bloody career was soon destined to terminate. Being condemned on a charge of tyranny, he was executed in July, 1794. After the fall of Robespierre, the Jacobin Club was suppressed, and during the following year a third convention was formed, and the executive power vested in five directors.

18. The sovereigns of Europe, alarmed at the extravagant proceedings of the revolution in France, began to consider the propriety of uniting their forces, in order to oppose its fearful progress. At an early stage of the convulsion a coalition was formed between Prussia and Austria for the purpose of reëstablishing the royal authority and restoring tranquillity to the country. After the execution of Louis, the first of the five great coalitions was formed with Great Britain, Holland, Russia, and Spain against France. The combined forces, under the command of the Duke of Brunswick, invaded France, but were hurled back in rout and confusion. The French, elated by this triumph, began to think of carrying their arms into the dominions of their assailants. Accordingly, under the command of Dumouriez, they subdued the Netherlands, Holland, Switzerland, and a part of Germany.

CHAPTER VII

BONAPARTE AND HIS WONDERFUL CAREER.—FROM 1796 TO 1815.

IN 1796 the command of the French army was given to Napoleon Bonaparte, then a young man in the twenty-seventh year of his age, who had previously distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon. This extraordinary genius

17. After this, what is said of the convention? Who prevailed? What is said of his own career? After the fall of Robespierre, what was done?—18. What is said of the sovereigns of Europe? At an early stage of the Revolution, what was formed? And after the death of Louis?

CHAPTER VII.—1. In 1796, what was done? What is said of Napoleon Bonaparte?

NAPOLEON CROSSING THE ALPS.

soon astonished the whole continent of Europe by his brilliant victories. He completed the conquest of Italy, and compelled the Austrians to sign the treaty of Campo Formio, by which the French conquests in the Netherlands were confirmed. The Venetian territories were given up to Austria, and the Milanese was ceded to the Cisalpine republic, which was newly formed out of the Austrian and Papal territories in Italy.

2. Bonaparte next directed his victorious arms against Egypt, utterly destroyed the Mam'elukes in the famous battle of the Pyramids, and took possession of Cairo and all the Delta. In 1798 the French fleet was defeated by the English, under the celebrated Nelson, in the bay of Aboukir. In 1799 a second coalition was formed between England and Russia, in which Austria and several other powers afterwards engaged. During the campaign which followed, the French were most unfortunate. The Austrians, under the Archduke Charles, and the Russians, under their general, Suwar'row, gained several important victories in the north of Italy and in Germany, and by uniting their forces they threatened the frontiers of France.

3. At this crisis, Bonaparte found it necessary to return to Paris to remedy the disorders caused by the misconduct of the Directory at home. By the aid of his partisans, Fouché, Tal'leyrand, and others, he succeeded in abolishing entirely the Directory, framed a new constitution, and caused himself to be elected First Consul. From this moment the affairs of France took a new turn. Bonaparte finding himself placed beyond all control, by his energy and activity surmounted every obstacle caused by the intrigues of his enemies; and by suppressing various factions which had long existed in the country, succeeded in restoring order and tranquillity in every department of the government.

4. Placing himself again at the head of his army, he effected the celebrated passage of the Alps, and defeated the Austrians in the memorable battle of Marengo. This victory was followed by a second defeat of the Austrians at Hohenlind'en by the French under Moreau. These and other advantages on the part of France were followed by the peace of Luneville, with Austria and the German empire; and in the

2. Where did Bonaparte next direct his arms? In 1798, what took place? Who gained several victories in the north of Italy, etc.?—3. At this crisis, what did Bonaparte find it necessary to do? By the aid of his partisans, what did he do? What did he now do?—4. What did he now effect?

succeeding year, 1802, after the peace of Amiens with England, Europe for the first time since the commencement of the Revolution enjoyed the blessing of universal tranquillity.

5. Bonaparte spent the short interval that elapsed between the cessation of war and the renewal of hostilities in performing various acts of public utility. In compliance with a previous contract with Pope Pius VII, he reëstablished the Christian religion in France, which had been suppressed by order of the impious Convention. He published a civil code; offered great facilities to commerce; and greatly embellished the city of Paris by new buildings and monuments. But at the same time his course was marked by cruelty and blood; he exercised the utmost rigor against Moreau′ and Pichegru′, two famous generals, who were accused of participating in a conspiracy; the former was exiled, and the latter strangled in prison, while a number of others were brought to the guillotine. The Duke d'Enghien′, a prince of the Bourbon family, after a mock trial, was shot during the night at the castle of Vincennes.

6. During these transactions, the mind of Bonaparte was actively engaged in maturing schemes of a higher ambition. After causing himself to be elected Consul for life, with power to appoint a successor, he began to think of assuming the sceptre. Addresses were made by the civil and military bodies, offering him the imperial dignity, which he condescended to accept. He was accordingly crowned in 1804, by the Pope, Emperor of France, and in the following year he assumed the title of King of Italy.

7. The peace of Amiens was of short duration. In 1803, the war had been renewed between England and France; and in 1805, a third coalition was formed by England, Austria, Russia, Sweden, and afterwards by Prussia. The Emperor immediately placing himself at the head of his army, took the field against the combined powers. At Ulm he captured the Austrian army of thirty-three thousand men under Mack; and in the memorable battle of Austerlitz, he defeated the united forces of Russia and Austria. At this

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After the peace of the Amiens, what is said of Europe?—5. How did Bonaparte spend the short interval? In compliance with the contract with Pope Pius VII, what did he do? What did he publish? What acts of cruelty did he exercise?—6. After causing himself to be elected consul for life, what did he begin to think of? When and by whom was he crowned emperor?—7. What was done in 1803 and in 1805? What did he do at Ulm? At Austerlitz?

Roman Empire
Austrian
Prussian
England & Hanover
Danish
Swedish
French
Savoyard
CENTRAL EUROPE
1801
DENMARK
SWEDEN
PRUSSIA
RUSSIA
ENGLAND
IRELAND
FRANCE
SPAIN
AUSTRIA
BOHEMIA
HUNGARY
SAXONY
BAVARIA
SWITZERLAND
HELVETIC REPUBLIC
CISALPINE REPUBLIC
LIGURIAN REPUBLIC
PARMA
TUSCANY
ROME
SARDINIA
CORSICA
LONDON
Amsterdam
Brussels
Paris
Berlin
Vienna
Frankfurt
Hamburg
Bremen
Hanover
Dresden
Prague
Warsaw
Copenhagen
Konigsberg
Danzig
Posen
Breslau
Cracow
Munich
Venice
Florence
Rome
Naples
Marseille
Nice
Avignon
Bordeaux
Lyons
Geneva
Strasbourg
Cologne
Mayence
Coblence
Worms
Spiers
Treves
Metz
Liege
Ghent
Aix-la-Chapelle
Besançon
Bern
Chambery
Turin
Orange
Andorra
Budda
Peath
Salzburg
Ragusa
Cattaro
MONTENEGRO
S. Marino
Corfu
Thorn
Memel
Riga
Nurnberg
Rugen
Bornholm
Holstein
Hesse Cassel
Wurtemburg
Baden
Hesse Darmstadt
Pomerania
Silesia
Galicia
Old Hungary
Rhine
Danube
Po
Save
Drave
Theiss
Vistula
Elbe
Weser
Ems
Meuse
Moselle
Saone
Rhone
Loire
Seine
Garonne
Tagus
Ebro
Guadiana
Guadalquivir
Duero
Minho
Andalusia
Portugal
Algarve
Gibraltar
Sicily
Malta
Ionian Islands
Candia
Cyprus
Rhodes
Smyrna
Constantinople
Adrianople
Salonica
Albania
Bosnia
Servia
Wallachia
Moldavia
Bessarabia
Crimea
Azof
Black Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Baltic Sea
North Sea
Irish Sea
English Channel
Bay of Biscay
Gulf of Lyons
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lepanto
Gulf of Corinth
Gulf of Patras
Gulf of Salonica
Gulf of Finland
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Riga
Gulf of Dantzic
Gulf of Lubeck
Gulf of Kiel
Gulf of Zuyder Zee
Gulf of Dollart
Gulf of Jade
Gulf of Weser
Gulf of Ems

battle the three Emperors were present. This brilliant victory terminated the campaign, and brought about the peace of Presburg, by which Austria ceded to France her Venetian territories. A few weeks previous to the battle of Austerlitz, the English fleet, under Lord Nelson, gained a great victory off Cape Trafalgar, over the combined fleets of France and Spain. The English captured nineteen ships of the line, but had to lament the loss of their celebrated admiral, who fell in the action.

8. As the king of Naples had permitted the English and the Russian armies to pass through his dominions, he drew upon himself the indignation of the Emperor of France, who deposed him, and placed his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, upon the Neapo'litan throne. He next compelled the Dutch to receive his brother Louis as king of Holland. After this, he subverted the constitution of the German empire, and formed a union of the several states, under the title of the "Confederation of the Rhine;" obliged Francis II to resign his title of Emperor of Germany and King of the Romans, and take that of Emperor of Austria; and raised the Electors of Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and Saxony to the rank of kings.

9. In 1806, a fourth coalition was formed, in which Russia, Austria, Prussia, Sweden, and England united against France. The Emperor, with his usual good fortune, annihilated the Prussians in the great battles of Jena and Auerstadt; immediately entered Berlin, and here commenced the Continental system against English commerce, declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade, and ordering all ports to be closed against them. Peace was restored in the following year by the treaty of Tilsit, when Bonaparte bestowed on his brother Jerome the provinces wrested from Prussia, which he erected into the new kingdom of Westphalia. When the news of the Berlin Decree reached England, the British government issued their Orders in Council, by which all neutral vessels trading with France were compelled to stop at a British port and pay a duty. In consequence of these orders, the Emperor, who proceeded to Italy after the peace of

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What did the English fleet gain? Who fell in the action?—8. What is said of the king of Naples? What did he compel the Dutch to do? After this what did he subvert, etc.?—9. What was formed in 1806? What did the emperor? What took place the following year? At the news of the Berlin Decree, what was done by the British government?

Tilsit, issued his Milan Decree, by which all vessels submitting to the British search, or consenting to any pecuniary exaction, were confiscated.

10. Elated by the astonishing success that attended his arms, the Emperor of France gave full scope to his ambition, and set at definance all principles of justice and moderation. He next fixed his attention upon Portugal, and so decisive was he in the execution of his plans, that the royal family was forced to quit the kingdom and embark for Brazil. He compelled Charles IV, of Spain, to abdicate his crown in favor of his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, who was in consequence transferred to the Spanish throne; and Mura't, who had married the sister of Napoleon, was raised to the throne of Naples.

11. The Spaniards, in this emergency, applied for aid to England, which readily granted them assistance. This circumstance gave rise to the Peninsular war, which continued to rage from 1808 to 1813.

In the meantime hostilities again broke out between France and Austria; and fortune favored Bonaparte with his usual success. Having gained several important victories over the Austrians at Abensberg, Ratisbon, and Wagram, he compelled the Emperor Francis to submit to a humiliating treaty at Vienna, by which he agreed to accede to the Continental system, and to give his daughter, Maria Louisa, in marriage to the Emperor of France. In consequence of this treaty, Bonaparte was solemnly divorced from the Empress Josephine, a woman of the most amiable character, and became allied to the imperial house of Austria.

12. By the treaty of Tilsit, Alexander, the Emperor of Russia, had acceded to the Continental system against England, and agreed to exclude British goods from his dominions; but finding this measure extremely injurious to his subjects, he thought proper to retract his assent. In consequence of this, Bonaparte determined on the invasion of the Russian empire. Early in the spring of 1812, he collected a splendid army, consisting of four hundred thousand infantry, sixty thousand cavalry, and one thousand two hundred pieces of

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What did the emperor issue?—10. On what did he next fix his attention? What did he compel Charles IV to do?—11. What gave rise to the Peninsular war? What did he compel the Emperor Francis to submit to? In consequence of the treaty, what followed?—12. What is said of Alexander, Emperor of Russia? What was the number of his army?

French Empire and Dependent States
Austrian
Prussian
Swedish
Savoyard
IRELAND
ENGLAND
WALES
LONDON
Boulogne
Hague
Amsterdam
HOLLAND
Brussels
Waterloo
Cologne
Aix la chapelle
Rouen
R. Seine
PARIS
Fontainebleau
R. Loire
Nantes
Napoleon Vendée
Bordeaux
St. Sebastian
Toulouse
SPAIN
Zaragoza
R. Rhine
Marence
Treves
Metz
Strasbourg
BADEN
WURTEMBURG
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
Erfurt
Jena
SAXONY
Dresden
Prague
BOHEMIA
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
BAVARIA
Hohenlinden
AUSTRIA
Vienna
R. Danube
Wagram
Pesth
HUNGARY
R. Drave
SLAVONIA
Bern
HELVETIC REPUBLIC
Geneva
Lyon
R. Rhone
Turin
Milan
R. Po
Venice
ILLYRIAN PROVINCES
BOSNIA
SERVIA
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
MONTENEGRO
Genoa
Nice
Marseille
Florence
ITALY
KM OF NAPLES
CORSICA
ROME
Naples
KM OF SARDINIA
Copenhagen
DENMARK
R. Elbe
Lubeck
MECKLENBURG
Hamburg
RÜGEN
POMERANIA
PRUSSIA
Berlin
Danzig
R. Vistula
Konigsberg
R. Niemen
Friedland
R. Bug
Warsaw
DUCHY OF WARSAW
SILESIA
Cracow
GALICIA
RUSSIA
CENTRAL EUROPE
1810.

artillery, and on the 24th of June he crossed the Niemen on this memorable expedition.*

13. His progress towards Moscow, to which he directed his march, was interrupted by the Russians, whom he defeated at Smolensk, and the tremendous battle of Borodi'no. The latter was distinguished over all the bloody encounters of that time by its enormous slaughter. One hundred thousand men lay dead or mangled on the field of Borodino! He afterwards proceeded to Moscow, which he found enveloped in flames and abandoned by its inhabitants. The city had been set on fire by the Russians to prevent its affording a shelter to the French army. Bonaparte, in this emergency, thought it prudent to retreat towards the frontier. But there is scarcely to be found in the annals of history a parallel to the suffering which the French now endured from cold and famine. It is stated that nearly thirty thousand horses perished in a single day from the severity of the weather; and of the immense host with which he invaded Russia, only about thirty thousand men remained to recross the Niemen.

14. In the meantime, the Emperor, leaving the remnant of his army after it had crossed the Beresina, near the frontiers, fled in disguise to Paris, raised another army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, and found himself opposed by a fifth coalition, consisting of Russia, Prussia, Austria, Sweden, and of several of the confederate states of the Rhine. Without losing a moment, he put himself at the head of his army, defeated the allied powers in the battle of Bautzen, repulsed them to Dresden, where Moreau, one of the ablest of their generals, was slain; but was utterly overthrown in the dreadful battle of Leipsic, with a loss of forty thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The combatants in this great engagement, called the Battle of Nations, exceeded four hundred thousand, a greater number than has ever been known to have been engaged in any one battle in modern times.

* The composition of this enormous force illustrates the almost universal dominion to which Napoleon had attained. Scarcely half the number were Frenchmen; the remainder were Austrians, Germans, Italians, Poles, and Swiss.

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13. What is said of his progress towards Moscow? What is said of the terrible battle of Borodino? How did he find Moscow? How many horses perished in a day? How many men recrossed the Niemen?—14. In the meantime, what did the emperor do? Where did he defeat the allied powers? Where was he overthrown? What is said of the combatants in that engagement?

15. After this battle the Emperor fled to Paris, and made a vain attempt to rouse the French people. Without loss of time, however, the allies crossed the Rhine, penetrated into the heart of France, and entered the capital. Napoleon finding the situation hopeless, abdicated the throne of France, and after various deliberations, the island of Elba was fixed upon for his future residence; but he was allowed to retain the title of Emperor. Matters being thus arranged, Louis XVIII was restored to the throne of his ancestors.

16. While the allied sovereigns were yet holding a congress at Vienna, for the purpose of arranging the affairs of Europe, Napoleon returned from exile and made another effort to regain the throne of France. Landing at Cannes, he marched with only eleven hundred and forty men, without opposition through the country; presented himself in an open carriage to the royal army at Melun; was received with shouts of applause; entered Paris the same evening; and was again proclaimed Emperor, amidst the loudest acclamations. Thus in twenty days after his landing at Cannes, he found himself quietly seated on the throne, without having spilled a drop of blood. This exploit, which is regarded as one of the most extraordinary of his life, is without a parallel in history, and evinces in a striking manner his vast ascendency over the French people.

17. As soon as his return to France was made known at Vienna, he was declared by the Congress a traitor and an outlaw. A new and formidable coalition was formed against him by nearly all the powers of Europe. He placed himself once more at the head of his army, but was defeated by the allies, under Wellington and Blucher, on the 18th of June, 1815, in the memorable battle of Waterloo, with a loss of upwards of forty thousand men in killed and wounded.

18. This battle sealed the fate of Bonaparte. He fled to Paris, abdicated the throne in favor of his son, and shortly afterwards surrendered himself to Captain Maitland, of the English ship-of-war Bellerophon, asking an asylum in England, which, he said in a letter to the Prince Regent, was the

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15. After this battle, what did the emperor do? What is said of the allies? What place was fixed for his residence?—16. While the allied sovereigns were holding a congress at Vienna, what took place? Landing at Frejus, what did he do? What is said of this exploit?—17. As soon as his return was made known, what was he declared? Where was he defeated by the allies? With what loss?—18. After this battle what did he do?

NAPOLEON AT WATERLOO.

most powerful, the most constant, and most generous of all his enemies. But it was unanimously agreed among the allied sovereigns that he should be sent a prisoner to the Isle of St. Helena, where he arrived on the 17th of October, 1815, and where he died on the 5th of May, 1821, in the sixth year of his captivity, and in the fifty-second of his age.*

CHAPTER VIII

REIGNS OF LOUIS XVIII; CHARLES X; AND LOUIS PHILIPPE.—FROM 1815 TO 1848.

AFTER the second dethronement of Napoleon, Louis XVIII was again placed on the throne of France, which was now reduced to nearly the same limits as before the Revolution. The government was compelled to restore a considerable amount of the plunder collected at Paris, to pay £28,000,000 sterling towards the expense of the war, and maintain for five years an army consisting of one hundred and fifty thousand of the allied troops, to be placed in different fortresses on the frontiers. Mura't, who had been raised to the throne of Naples, and Marshal Ney, having both taken part with Bonaparte after his return from Elba, were sentenced to be shot.

2. Louis XVIII was succeeded in 1824 by his brother, the Count d'Artois, then a man of sixty-six, under the title of Charles X. The reign of this monarch was signalized by two foreign enterprises; one in favor of the Greeks, in which France united with England and Russia, the other against the city of Algiers, which surrendered to the French after a siege of six days, on the 5th of July, 1830. This reign was also disturbed by the contests between the ultra-royalists and the liberal party.

3. In March, 1830, the chamber of deputies made a strong stand against the ministry; and in consequence of this, the chamber was dissolved by the king and new elections ordered. On the 26th of July, it having been ascertained that a great majority of the newly-elected members were liberal, an ordi-

* See "Biography of Eminent Personages."

Where was he sent? When did he die.

CHAPTER VIII.—1. Who was again placed upon the throne? What was the government compelled to do?—2. Who succeeded Louis XVIII in 1824? What two enterprises marked the reign of Charles X?—3. What conflict took place between the government and the chamber of deputies in 1830?

nance was issued by the government, dissolving the chamber before it met, suspending the liberty of the press, and altering the mode of elections.

4. The publication of this ordinance caused the greatest commotion in Paris. The citizens took up arms against the government, and on the 29th of July gained a decided advantage over the king's guards. The trembling monarch now withdrew the fatal ordinance; but it was too late. That document had sealed the ruin of a line of sixty kings. Charles fled to England, and died a helpless wanderer. The chamber of deputies met on the 3d of August; the throne was declared vacant, and the Duke of Orleans was called to accept the crown. On the 9th of August, 1830, the duke took the oath prescribed, and became ruler of France, under the title of Louis Philippe, King of the French.

5. The first four or five years of this reign were years of fear and unquietness. The citizen king found himself surrounded by difficulties. Arrayed against him were the adherents of the fallen dynasty, those who cherished the brilliant memory of Napoleon, and the Republicans, who were now rapidly increasing in numbers. Each party was actively engaged in preparing its own future triumph, and none of them shrank from the idea of employing force to gain its ends. There seemed to be a yearning for fresh excitement. Universal distrust prevailed. A complex force of police found ample employment in watching the movements of men who were suspected of dangerous projects.

6. While the elements of disturbance were thus abundant, a wretched fanatic, named Fieschi, set up at a window, before which Louis Philippe and his sons were to pass, a machine composed of twenty-five gun-barrels, which he discharged at once against the royal family. Forty persons fell, killed or mangled; but the king passed on unharmed, although a bullet grazed his forehead. Despotic laws were immediately enacted. The press was fettered. A picture could not be sold without official permission. Insurrection was confronted by cannon. The government was hated, but disorder quailed before its cold, remorseless strength. France, however, if not contented, grew tranquil.

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4. What did the Parisians do? To what country did the king fly? Who was now called to accept the crown?—5. Describe the difficulties of the new reign and the state of political parties in France?—6. Who attempted to murder the royal family, and with what result?

German Confederation
Austrian
Prussian
England and Hanover
Netherlands
Danish
French
Savoyard
CENTRAL EUROPE
1815.
IRELAND
ENGLAND
WALES
LONDON
Amsterdam
Hague
Antwerp
Ghent
Bologne
Brussels
NETHERLANDS
Rouen
Luxemburg
Metz
Strasbourg
PARIS
Seine
Loire
Nantes
FRANCE
Bordeaux
Toulouse
SPAIN
Rhine
Köln
Frankfurt
Mainz
Hamburg
Lubeck
Bremen
HANOVER
Copenhagen
SWEDEN
DENMARK
HOLSTEIN
MECKLENBURG
Berlin
BRANDENBURG
SAXONY
Leipzig
Dresden
Prague
BOHEMIA
Regensbg.
Munich
Danube
CONFEDERATION
AUSTRIA
Vienna
Pesth
EMPIRE
HUNGARY
MORAVIA
SILESIA
POSEN
WEST PRUSSIA
EAST PRUSSIA
POLAND
Warsaw
RUSSIA
Bern
SWITZERLAND
TYROL
CARINTHIA
CARNIOLA
SLAVONIA
CROATIA
DANAT
Venice
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Modena
Bologna
Florence
Leghorn
TUSCANY
Sn. Marino
ROME
Naples
BOSNIA
SERVIA
MONTENEGRO
DALMATIA
ELBA
CORSICA
KM. OF SARDINIA
Nizza
Marseille
Rhone
Po
Arno
Tiber
Danube
Elbe
Oder
Vistula
Bug
Dniester
Dniepr

7. A system of public schools was established in the early years of the reign of Louis Philippe; and in 1838, France saw its first line of railway constructed. These were steps on the road to real progress.

8. Thiers gave expression to the changed national feeling when, in 1840, on the part of the government, he asked England to restore to France the bones of Napoleon. The request was courteously granted. A French ship of war was sent to carry the remains home. The lonely grave under the willow-tree, at St. Helena, was opened. The body had been so skilfully embalmed that nineteen years of death had not effaced the expression of the well-remembered features. Once more men looked with reverence and pity upon the almost unchanged countenance of him who had been the glory and the scourge of his age. King and lord and peasant attended the vast funeral procession that wended its way through the streets of Paris to the church of the Invalides, where the remains of the greatest military genius of modern times found a suitable resting-place.

9. Down to the very close of Louis Philippe's reign, France toiled to establish her supremacy over the city of Algiers and that portion of northern Africa which she had marked as her own. It was a fair and ample region—the Numidia of the Romans, one of the chief sources of their supply of wheat. The natives, however, refused to yield to their new masters. Pitiless and incessant war was waged, and whole tribes annihilated. The most formidable antagonist encountered by the French was the brave Emir, Abd-el-Kader. For thirteen years he battled with varied fortune, and it was only in 1847 that he surrendered to General Lamoricière. France was now mistress of Algeria.

10. Though the period of Louis Philippe's rule was peaceful, the expenses of himself and his government were an enormous strain on the kingdom. He had learned little from experience and misfortune.* The taxes became heavier year

* Louis Philippe was obliged to fly from France in 1793—the terrible time of the Revolution. He had taught school in Switzerland, and had been a wanderer in England and America.

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7. What is said of public schools and railroads?—8. What is said of the remains of Napoleon?—9. Where did France toil to establish her supremacy? How did the natives act? Who was the most formidable antagonist encountered by the French?—10. What is said of the expenses of Louis Philippe's reign?

after year. Furnaces, it is said, were heated in the royal kitchen at an annual expense of about a quarter of a million dollars. The standing army was large and its cost immense. The crops failed in 1845 and 1846, and prices rose to a famine point. Under such a weight of depressing circumstances, the people grew more restless and discontented, and the clouds of a sweeping revolutionary storm began to gather over Europe.

11. For some time previously to the year 1848, various incidents occurred to give indications of the disturbed state of society and the approaching upheaval of the masses. The flame of revolution had already burst forth in Italy and Germany, and was not long in communicating its effects to the excitable Parisian populace. In the early part of January, 1848, an open demonstration was made in favor of reform, and reform banquets were arranged to take place in various cities, especially in Paris. The government not only prohibited these reform festivals, but the king, in a speech from the throne, censured in severe terms the whole movement as tending to excite blind and hostile passions. These measures only tended to exasperate the minds of the people. They paraded the streets in crowds, with the cry of reform and "down with Guiz'ot," the Minister of Foreign Affairs. One of these processions, on the night of the 23d of February, 1848, halted in front of the foreign office, and while still in that situation, a gun was discharged, and the military posted there thinking themselves attacked, fired upon the crowd, and fifty-two persons fell, either killed or wounded.

12. This was a signal for an open revolt. The news spread quickly through Paris; the alarm-bell was sounded, and in a few hours the whole city was in the wildest state of excitement. The people flew to arms, and were joined by the national guard. King Louis Philippe, alarmed at this sudden change of affairs, and fearing for his own safety, immediately abdicated in favor of his grandson, the Count de Paris, and fled with his queen* to England, where he was shortly afterwards joined by the other members of his family.

* The royal pair travelled under the simple name of Smith—Mr. and Mrs. Smith!

What happened to the crops in 1845-6? How did the people act?—11. Previously to the year 1848, what occurred? Where had the flame burst forth? To what did these measures tend? What took place on February 23d, 1848?—12. What followed? What became of the king?

CHAPTER IX

THE NEW REPUBLIC SOON SUCCEEDED BY THE SECOND EMPIRE —REIGN AND DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON III—GLANCE AT THE PRESENT FRENCH REPUBLIC.

WHEN the flight of Louis Philippe became known, the monarchy was abolished, and a republican form of government proclaimed. As soon as the news of the success of the insurrection reached England, Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte* hastened to Paris, and addressed a few lines to Lamarti'ne, then the head of the provisional government, announcing his arrival, and his willingness to place himself under the banner of the republic. To this letter the government replied by ordering him to quit Paris within twenty-four hours, and he again quietly withdrew to England. A few months afterwards, Louis Napoleon was elected to the Constituent Assembly from the Department of Seine, by a large majority, and after some opposition took his seat in that body.

In the meantime an insurrection broke out in Paris against the new government. It was instigated by the Socialist leaders, who wished to destroy every distinction of rank and fortune, and aimed at elevating themselves to power, and enriching themselves by plundering their more wealthy neighbors. The streets were barricaded and the most formidable preparations were made to resist the government forces. Alarmed at the determination of the insurgents, the National Assembly invested General Cavaignac' with dictatorial power, and intrusted to him the suppression of the revolt. After a sanguinary conflict, which lasted three days, the government triumphed. The barricades were carried, and the rebels dispersed. This, however, was not accomplished without a

* Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was a son of Louis Bonaparte, ex-king of Holland and brother of the Emperor Napoleon I. His career before this date had been very eventful. He was born at Paris, in 1808. He had lived in Switzerland, Italy, the United States and England.

CHAPTER IX.—1. What followed the flight of the king? Who hastened to Paris? To this letter, what answer was given? What happened a few months after this? In the meantime, what happened in Paris? By whom was it instigated? Who was clothed with dictatorial power? How was the insurrection suppressed?

serious sacrifice of life and destruction of property. Among the victims who fell on the occasion none were more deeply lamented than Archbishop Affre of Paris. During the contest, this brave and illustrious man approached the barricades, with a view of soothing the angry feelings of the combatants. His presence inspired respect, and both parties for a short time ceased from the conflict. But, unhappily, while he was holding a conference with the insurgents, he received a mortal wound, and was borne in a dying state from the barricades.

2. As soon as order was restored, an election for President of the new republic took place. There were no less than six candidates, the most prominent of whom were Louis Napoleon, General Cavaignac, and Lamartine; the first named, however, was elected by a large majority over all his competitors.* Napoleon entered with energy on the duties of his office of president, and soon succeeded in giving stability to the governent. As his term of office drew towards a close, a formidable conspiracy was entered into, chiefly by the members of the Assembly, having for its object the overthrow of the existing government, and the arrest and imprisonment of the president. Louis Napoleon, however, being aware of the movement, anticipated their designs by seizing the government and dissolving the National Assembly. He saw a crown within his reach, and grasped at the royal bauble. He then appealed to the people, who approved of his *coup d'état*, and invested him with the supreme sovereignty, by a vote of nearly seven millions of a majority over all opposition. In 1852 he became Emperor under the title of Napoleon III.† France craved rest under a strong government. She got it, and was satisfied. In 1853 Napoleon married Eugénie de Montijo, Countess of Teba, a gifted and most amiable lady; and three years later the Prince Imperial was born.

3. Notwithstanding a saying attributed to the new Emperor, *"L'Empire, c'est la paix"*—the empire is peace—the

* Louis Napoleon received five and a half millions of votes, while his five competitors did not together receive two millions.

† The son of Napoleon I died at Vienna in 1832. After the abdication of his father in 1815, he was proclaimed emperor under the name of Napoleon II, but it was an empty title, as he never reigned.

Who was among the victims?—2. Who were the candidates for the presidency, and who was elected? What conspiracy was entered into, and how did Napoleon act? When did he become emperor?

French were soon engaged in war. In 1853, the Czar Nicholas, thinking the moment opportune for carrying out his long-cherished scheme of aggrandizement at the expense of Turkey, declared war against that power and invaded the Danubian provinces. The flimsy pretext for this aggressive measure was of protecting the Greek Christians persecuted by the Turks, although they enjoyed, in reality, more religious liberty than did the Catholic Poles, in the Czar's own dominions. France and England formed an alliance with the Sultan, and in 1854 declared war against Russia. The allied powers soon drove the Russians from the Danubian provinces; but they aimed at greater results, and they resolved to strike a blow that would check forever Russia's ambitious schemes.

4. With this view, the combined forces of England, France, and Turkey, numbering sixty thousand men, landed at Eupato'ria on the 4th of September, 1854, and marched on the Russian stronghold, Sebas'topol. On the 20th they encountered the enemy, and defeated him in the bloody battle of Alma. They then pushed vigorously their operations against Sebastopol, upon which the attention of the civilized world was to be drawn for nearly a year, by the heroic daring of the besiegers and the stubborn defence of the besieged. The entrance of the harbor having been obstructed by the Russians by sinking several battleships and frigates, the allies resolved to take the place by land, and on the 17th of October they commenced the bombardment with two hundred pieces of heavy artillery. This siege may be called one continued battle, for day and night the work of bloodshed and destruction was carried on with ever renewed vigor. Reinforcements were continually arriving, and in January, 1855, the allied army was strengthened by a corps from Sardinia. The forts at the entrance of the harbor had been silenced or blown up by the French and English fleets; the doomed city itself was a pile of ruins when the general assault was made September 8, 1855. The French finally succeeded in carrying by storm the famous tower, Malakoff, and Sebastopol became untenable. The Russian commander, Prince Gortschakoff, after a fruitless attempt to intrench himself in the city and protract the

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3. What did the Czar Nicholas in 1853? What powers allied themselves against Russia? What did the allies?—4. Where did they land in September, 1854? What great battle was fought? What place did they besiege?

defence, sank his fleet, blew up the fortifications, and evacuated the place. Sebastopol was taken.

5. During the siege, the Czar Nicholas died, it is said, of a broken heart at the failure of his plans. He was succeeded by his son, Alexander II, who, after the fall of Sebastopol, agreed upon an armistice. Peace was finally concluded, and by the treaty signed at Paris in March, 1856, Russia renounced her protectorate over the Danubian provinces. The navigation of the Danube was declared free, and the Black Sea neutral water, wherein no vessel of war can navigate. Turkey, on the other side, solemnly confirmed all the privileges heretofore granted her Christian subjects. Russia's power, if not her desire, to oppress Turkey, was for the time effectually paralyzed.

6. Such is a brief outline of the bloody conflict known as the "Crimean war," and during which the world saw the extraordinary spectacle of the banners of the Cross and the Crescent floating side by side, and the two old enemies, France and England, fighting in a common cause. Truly, the designs of an all-wise Providence are impenetrable.

7. The year 1857 saw France and England again united in a war against the Emperor of China, to obtain redress for insults proffered to their flags, and to punish the Chinese for cruelties perpetrated upon their missionaries. The allies took Canton, and advanced on Pekin so promptly that the Chinese Emperor hastened to sign a treaty of peace; but, as soon as relieved from the presence of his enemies, he broke his faith and persecuted the Christians anew. Another expedition was sent to China, and the victorious army of the allies entered Pekin in October, 1860. A new treaty of peace was then signed, far more advantageous to the western powers than that of 1858. By it they secured the right of having an ambassador at Pekin. The Christians were guaranteed the free exercise of their religion, eight Chinese ports were opened to European commerce, and, finally, France and England received each a war indemnity of sixty thousand francs.

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5. Give an account of the siege of Sebastopol. What became of the Czar Nicholas? Who succeeded him? When was peace concluded? What were the conditions of the treaty?—6. What singular spectacle was presented by the Crimean war?—7. What expedition did France and England undertake in 1857? Why? What caused a renewal of hostilities? How did the war end?

8. Another and a similar expedition to Cochin-China was undertaken in 1858 by France and Spain, the Emperor of Anam having given them the same grounds of offense as had China. The allies captured Tourane and Saïgon, and suspended operations for a time, Spain having accepted a pecuniary compensation, and withdrawn from the conflict. But France resumed active hostilities in 1862, and compelled the Emperor of Anam to recognize the rights of the Christians, to pay her an indemnity and cede her three provinces, and to open three ports in Tonkin to commerce.

9. Simultaneously with these minor expeditions, France became involved in another Continental war. A quarrel had sprung up between her ally, Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, and the Emperor of Austria. The latter having taken alarm at warlike preparations that were in progress in Sardinia, protested against them, and, being unheeded, ordered his army in the Lombardo-Venetian provinces to cross the Tessino and invade Sardinian territory. This act of hostility caused Napoleon to send immediately a French army into Italy. A short but bloody war ensued. On the 4th of June, 1859, the contending armies fought the celebrated battle of Magen'ta, which was gained by the French. On the 24th it was followed by the still bloodier engagement of Solferi'no, which lasted sixteen hours. Napoleon and Francis Joseph were in command of their respective armies, and their presence seemed to instill new fury into the combatants. Finally, the Austrians having suffered terrible losses, retreated across the Mincio, leaving the French in possession of the battlefield. Thus Napoleon III humbled Austria and aided the ambitious projects of his friend, Victor Emmanuel.

10. A truce followed. The two Emperors had a personal interview at Villafranca, and agreed upon the basis of a treaty of peace, which was finally concluded at Zurich. Sardinia obtained Lombardy, and France had for her share Savoy and Nice.

11. But the Old World did not afford sufficient scope for the scheming and restless Emperor of France. The republic of Mexico, then a chaos of misrule and disorder, had be-

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8. Give an account of the expedition to Cochin-China.—9. In what other war did France become involved? How did Austria act? What were the two principal battles fought? With what result?—10. What followed? Upon what conditions was peace made?—11. What new enterprise was undertaken by Napoleon.

come lately so intolerable that France, Spain, and England were provoked into sending a military force in the hope of applying remedies to evils that were a scandal to Christendom. England and Spain, however, soon withdrew their forces, and the whole weight of the expedition fell upon France. The French army, under General Forey, rapidly subdued the country, and entered the city of Mexico in May, 1863. The President fled. Napoleon had upon his hands a nation without a government. It was resolved to found a hereditary monarchy, and to offer the crown to the Archduke Maximilian, brother to the Emperor of Austria. The unhappy young man accepted the fatal gift. Soon France withdrew her army, and Maximilian found himself surrounded by enemies. He was betrayed and brutually murdered in 1867. The Mexican war was one of the greatest of Napoleon's mistakes. It cost France much blood and treasure, and none of the objects for which it was undertaken were ever realized.

12. From the early part of his reign the bad faith of Napoleon towards Pope Pius IX was apparent. The grasping dishonesty of Victor Emmanuel, who grew at the expense of his weaker neighbors, met with his silent approbation. In September, 1860, "the Pope's temporal sovereignty disappeared with the flag that was lowered on the crumbling walls of Ancona;" and just ten years after that event the star of Napoleon set forever behind the black clouds that overhung the disastrous field of Sedan'.

13. On withdrawing his army from Mexico, the French Emperor looked around for some fresh enterprise. The boundaries of France might, perhaps, be enlarged, and he cherished the idea of a war with Prussia. But it did not come in a moment. The great industrial exhibition of Paris, in 1867, brought the King of Prussia and Count Bismarck to that gay capital. Some of the ablest military men of Germany visited the northeastern portions of France, and made a thorough study of the country and its resources. By and by such knowledge would become very useful.

By whom was the French army commanded, and when did it enter Mexico? What is said of Maximilian? What is said of the Mexican war and Napoleon?—12. What was Napoleon's conduct towards Pius IX? What occurred just ten years after the fall of Ancona?—13. What scheme had the French Emperor in view after withdrawing his army from Mexico? What is said of the great Industrial Exhibition of Paris in 1867?

14. The distracted Spaniards were searching Europe for a king, and they chanced upon a certain Prince Leopold, of Hohenzollern, whom they invited to rule over them. He was a kinsman to the king of Prussia. Napoleon objected to him as a candidate for the Spanish throne. It was a trifling affair, but grave complications arose. France declared war against Prussia in July, 1870. The Emperor joined the army at Metz, but it was soon discovered that he was really unprepared for a great campaign. He found himself at the head of only about half as many troops as he had expected.* Supplies of every description, even of food and money, were lacking. But, prepared or otherwise, he must now meet the terribly armed and disciplined hosts of Germany.

15. The first engagement was at Saarbrück, where a small force of Prussians fell back before the advancing French. But no use could be made of this success, and in two short weeks four hundred and fifty thousand perfectly equipped Germans stood face to face with the rash and ill-prepared forces of France. The crash of arms and the thunder of artillery told of woful destruction and the rage and struggle of contending thousands. An overwhelming force of Germans, under the Crown Prince, defeated the French on August 4th at Weis'senburg. France was invaded. The victors pushed on rapidly towards Wörth, where Marshal MacMahon† was striving to draw his scattered forces together. He was surprised in the early morning by a force far outnumbering his own, for the Germans soon had a million of men in the field. The French fought with desperate courage, but were defeated, and MacMahon was obliged to fall back.

16. Napoleon was filled with dismay at this accumulation of disasters. He was at Metz. There he vainly strove to hasten the concentration of his whole army; but at every point his plans were frustrated by the rushing flood of armed Germans who overran the country, and dashed all his com-

* Only about two hundred and twenty thousand; twice that number should have been ready.

† He was born in France, in 1808. He was of Irish descent.

14. Give the circumstances that led to the Franco-Prussian war. When did France declare hostilities? Was Napoleon really prepared for a great campaign?—15. Where did the first engagement take place? With what result? Where were the French defeated on August 14th? Describe the battle of Wörth.—16. How did Napoleon now exert himself, and with what result?

binations into hopeless ruin. He made over the command of the army at Metz to Marshal Bazaine. It was not two weeks since the first blow had been struck, and already the war was lost beyond all hope of recovery. The whole German army was now in France.

17. Bazaine was hemmed in at Metz by two German armies, and vainly attempted to escape. He fought bloody and indecisive battles at Rezonville and Gravelotte. But he was obliged to withdraw his disheartened troops to the shelter of the forts.* MacMahon was ordered to hasten from Chalons and relieve Bazaine. He had only one hundred and forty thousand exhausted and poorly equipped men, but he bravely set out on what he considered a desperate enterprise. Two German armies fell in with MacMahon in the course of his march towards Metz, and he was forced to retreat northward to the town of Sedan. A message was sent to the unfortunate Emperor, who arrived there late at night, and walked almost alone from the railway station into the place where the crowning agony of his career was to be endured.

18. The French occupied a range of heights which overlook Sedan. The Germans, in overwhelming numbers, had gathered themselves around this position, and advanced to the attack before daybreak. The French stood their ground. Early in the action, however, Marshal MacMahon was struck down by a bursting shell, and as they bore the faithful veteran from the field he was met by Napoleon, who spoke a few kind words. It was their final parting. In vain did the French, with heroic courage, maintain for a time the hopeless struggle. One by one their positions were carried by the indefatigable Germans. The vanquished flung out a flag of truce. Napoleon surrendered himself to the King of Prussia, and the French commander, General Wimpffen, who succeeded MacMahon, made the best terms he could for his shattered forces. Eighty-three thousand Frenchmen laid down their rifles and surrendered on September 1, 1870. No such shame had ever fallen upon the arms of France.

* Bazaine, with his whole army of one hundred and seventy thousand men, capitulated in October.

Who commanded the French at Metz?—17. What is said of Bazaine's position at Metz? What was MacMahon ordered to do? To what town, however, was he obliged to retreat? What is said of Napoleon?—18. Describe the battle of Sedan.

19. With the disaster at Sedan perished the government of Napoleon III. He now disappears from history.* The Parisians, who, a few weeks before, had shouted, "On to Berlin," deposed their hapless Emperor and erected a republic. The road to Paris was open, but the new government resolved on a stern defence. Several German armies marched on the capital, surrounded it completely, and, after a siege of four months, Paris was given over to the enemies of France. The countless hosts of Germany marched in triumph through its magnificent streets. A treaty terminated their occupation, but not the miseries of Paris. The wretched Communists seized the devoted city and bade defiance to the republican government. For many weeks a French army, under Marshal MacMahon, besieged and shelled the capital. At last an entrance was forced. The fiendish insurgents were crushed, but not before they had destroyed some of the finest buildings in Paris and slaughtered many innocent prisoners—among others, several Jesuit and Dominican Fathers, and the illustrious Archbishop Darboy.

20. France was terribly punished for the blunder of Napoleon III. The final terms of peace with Germany, known as the Treaty of Frankfort, were signed May 10, 1871. France, bleeding and humbled, had to give up the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and pay an indemnity of five billions of francs. It was an enormous burden. But once more the marvellous ability of France to recover from military and pecuniary disaster astonished the world. Thiers was now President of the republic, and within the appointed time he was able to discharge in full the huge claims of Germany.

21. The aged Thiers resigned the presidency in May, 1873, and was succeeded by Marshal MacMahon, the conqueror of the Communists, and the leader in many a bold and desperate conflict. Under his faithful guidance, France continued to grow in prosperity. MacMahon resigned his office in 1879, and was succeeded by Jules Grévy as President of the French republic.

* He afterwards joined his family in England, and died in 1873.

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19. What happened to Napoleon III, after the battle of Sedan? What is said of the siege of Paris and the Germans? What did the Communists do?—20. Mention the final terms of peace between France and Germany. Who was the first President of the new French Republic? What did he pay?—21. Who succeeded Thiers? When did MacMahon resign? Who was his successor?

22. Soon after, an unjust reënactment of obsolete codes against the Jesuit Fathers and other Religious Orders proved, however, that in name only was France a republic. Liberty is dead where impiety and fanaticism rule. It seems that the great land of St. Louis is going through a course of purification; but the Almighty Ruler of nations alone knows what will be the result.

23. In 1881 the Black Flags, remnants of the Taiping (Chinese) rebellion, gave trouble in Tonquin and Anam, where France had acquired territorial and commercial rights. Military operations were, in the end, successfully conducted against them, confirming French authority in Tonquin and establishing a protectorate over Anam.

Anam has long considered herself a dependency of the Chinese empire, the tie being more or less strictly drawn as she thought her needs required. During her difficulties with the French she sought and obtained aid from China, and France thereby became involved with the latter power. Open war against China was declared in 1884. Peace, however, was reëstablished the following year—a year further marked by the reëlection of Grévy to the Presidency.

24. In 1887, Grévy abdicated, and M. F. Sadi-Carnot was chosen to succeed him. Soon after his inauguration General Boulanger fomented a violent political agitation. At heart a monarchist, he affected the part of a political purist, and, in the name of the republic, demanded a *plebiscite,* or popular vote, on a revision of the constitution. The friends of the monarchy supplied him liberally with means; but Boulanger was not the man for the hour, and his cause soon showed symptoms of decline. He was condemned by the senate (1889), but had already fled the country. He committed suicide in Belgium soon afterwards.

In 1889, an international exposition, or world's fair, at Paris, attracted universal attention.

25. Since the bursting of Boulanger's bubble the history of France continued uneventful, till 1892, when gross scandals, growing out of the management of the Panama Canal enterprise, seriously menaced the stability of the republic. They

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22. What is said of the recent laws against the religious orders?—23. Who were the Black Flags? Result of military operations in Tonquin and Anam? How did war in Anam bring on war with China?—24. Who was chosen President in 1887? Give an account of the Boulanger agitation. By whom upheld? Its outcome? What took place in Paris in 1889?—25. What great scandal in 1892?

disclosed a degree of corruptibility among many of the public journals and public men of France, as ominous as it was shameful. The government—implicated, at least, indirectly—made a show of prosecution. The trials at law proved a flash in the pan. Out of a hundred and odd deputies indicted, two were convicted—one of these on his personal confession. Among those who suffered was the aged Count de Lesseps, the head of the enterprise, and one who had given honor to France as the originator and engineer of the Suez Canal.

26. The republic had its great tragedy in 1894. On Sunday, June 24th, of that year, while driving through the streets of Lyons, President Carnot was assassinated by an Italian anarchist named Cesario Santo. M. Casimir-Perier was chosen by the National Assembly to succeed him, but remained in office only a few months, resigning in January, 1895. His successor was M. Felix Faure. In the first year of his presidency a French army conquered Madagascar, whose capital, Antananarivo, surrendered to the invaders on September 20, 1895. A treaty was signed which provided for a French protectorate over the island. The conquerors went farther in June, 1896, and formally annexed Madagascar to France. The last sovereign of the Hovas, Queen Ronovalo, had been carried off into exile.

Late in the summer of 1897, President Faure made an official visit to St. Petersburg, where he had a conference with Czar Nicholas II. It was understood that on that occasion a treaty was concluded between France and Russia, but nothing definite has ever been made known on this subject.

In 1898, a clash between France and England over rival claims in the southern Soudan was threatened. Major Marchand, at the head of a military exploring party, marched from West Africa across the continent, and, in the name of France, took possession of Fashoda, on the upper Nile; but, yielding before a superior English force, he withdrew and returned to France in 1899.

27. During the years 1898-9, another great scandal and military conspiracy was exposed. This arose out of the arrest, in 1894, conviction on trumped-up evidence, and exile, in

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Its outcome? What noted man became disgraced? What had made Count de Lesseps famous?—26. What tragic event happened in 1894? Who succeeded President Carnot? How long did he serve? When did M. Faure become President? The chief events during his term?—27. How did it end?

January, 1895, to Devil's Island, in French Guiana, of Captain Alfred Dreyfus, on the charge of betraying military secrets to Germany. M. Emile Zola, in 1897, began a vigorous defence of the convict, for which he was himself tried and convicted, in consequence of which he fled to England the following year. But the agitation for the reopening of the Dreyfus case became only the stronger, and was the more vigorously opposed by a certain clique of army officers. The country was in a violent state of agitation on this account when, early in 1899, President Faure died and was succeeded by M. Loubet, who had previously been president of the senate. At his predecessor's funeral there was an attempt at a military *coup d'état,* which failed. On account of President Loubet being in favor of a revision of the Dreyfus case, which had been authorized by the Court of Cassation the previous October, there was a hostile demonstration against him on this occasion. Later on there was another and fiercer one at the Auteuil races. Elaborate military and police precautions taken to prevent a recurrence of such violent scenes of disorder at the Longchamps races a week later, led the following day to the defeat and resignation of the ministry that had held over from President Faure's time. This cabinet was succeeded by one favorable to revision of the Dreyfus case, with Senator Waldeck-Rousseau as Premier. The convict captain was brought back to France in July and imprisoned in the city of Rennes, where his retrial by a military commission was begun on August 7th. He was barely convicted and afterward pardoned. Previous to that time a reorganization of the army had begun by the shifting and shelving of generals opposed to revision. For the time political militarism in France received a serious setback.

28. In regard to the religious aspects of France: From the complete formation of the republic in 1875, providing for a president and cabinet, a senate and a chamber of deputies, the aim of the body of the republicans has been to secularize education—to take it out the hands of ecclesiastics and of the religious orders. This they succeeded in doing, by legislative enactment, in 1880; and France has suffered from the elimination of the religious element from her official schools.

What was the Dreyfus case? What commotions did it cause? Who became President in 1899?—28. What has been the aim of the Republicans? What did they effect in 1880? Its results upon France?

The general attitude towards the Church on the part of those controlling the government is one of opposition. In July, 1901, by the Association Law, power was given to the State to suppress all religious orders.

In 1900, a magnificent, but not financially successful, world's fair was held in Paris.

29. Under the present constitution of France there are two legislative bodies—the chamber of deputies and the senate. Every citizen of twenty-one years of age is entitled to vote at an election. Any citizen of twenty-five may be a deputy; any citizen of forty may be a senator. The legislators receive payment for their services. The President is the head of the government. He is elected for seven years, and the senate and chamber of deputies meet in national assembly. The President appoints his ministers, and they are responsible to the chambers. In 1909, the incumbent is Armand Fallières, 1906-1913.

In France the law divides all landed possessions equally among the children of the owner; and this arrangement has resulted in an extraordinary multiplication of proprietors. Nearly two-thirds of the French houscholders are landowners.

30. Since the year 1900, the administrative acts of the French government, with one notable exception, have aroused little interest in the world outside. That remarkable measure was the passage, in 1901, of an act suppressing the religious orders and confiscating their property. This act, known as the Law of Associations, was passed without any provocation either from Rome or the religious orders themselves. Its effect was to suppress one of the important elements of the Catholic religion. On July 31, 1904, diplomatic relations with Rome were completely broken off. Events then succeeded one another with startling rapidity, and on December 11, 1905, was published a project of separation.

31. By the Law of Separation the French Republic declared liberty of conscience for people of every creed, and put an end to all support of worship by the State. It further provided for an inventory of all public establishments of worship, and the contents of such establishments. Catholics pro-

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The attitude of the government towards the Church?—29. What are the legislative bodies of France? Who is entitled to vote? At what age may a citizen be a Deputy? A Senator? What is said of the President and his powers? How does the French law divide landed possessions, and what is the result?—30. What important law was enacted in 1901? Mention some of its effects.—31. State a few of the chief provisions of the Law of Separation.

tested against the taking of inventories, and sometimes offered violent resistance. The law provided also for the transfer within one year of all properties appertaining to worship to the *"associations cultuelles."* If, however, such associations were not formed within one year, these properties were to be sequestrated.

For those who had during twenty or thirty years performed ecclesiastical functions, one section of the law provided a pension, and for all others an allocation, or a part of an allocation, during four years. Fine or imprisonment punished those who urged by writings or speeches resistance to this remarkable law.

32. In an Encyclical, published February 11, 1906, the Pope condemned the law as injurious to God, as a violation of natural and international law, as contrary to the constitution of the Church and to her rights, and finally, because it was gravely offensive to the Apostolic See.

33. In France, the Catholics were divided among themselves as to whether the Law of Separation should be given a trial. A form of association suggested by a majority of the French Bishops, as being in their judgment both legal and canonical, was proposed to the Holy See, by whom about two months later it was rejected for its failure to guarantee "the hierarchical constitution of the Church and its authority over ecclesiastical properties." Subsequently the Bishops recommended all Catholics to obey the decision of the Pope.

34. In the controversy between Church and State in France, the ownership of ecclesiastical property is an important topic. Catholics claim that the churches are their property, while the government holds that the Cathedrals are the property of the State, and the churches of the communes.

35. Clearly to comprehend this subject it is necessary to examine the various acts of the French Government from 1789 to 1802. At that time, 1802, the famous Concordat was promulgated. It will also be found necessary to examine some later legislation. From this inquiry it will appear that the stipend promised by the agreement of 1802 was in

32. What was the attitude of the Pope toward the Law of Separation?—33. What was the state of Catholic opinion in France with respect to this law? What did the French Bishops recommend?—34. As to the ownership of ecclesiastical property, what is the claim of the government and that of the Church?—35. When was the Concordat promulgated? When the government took the Church property, did it promise any compensation?

the nature of compensation for the Church property taken over by the government before that date. Now that agreement, or Concordat, is abolished. A scholarly writer has observed "that the churches have been built, maintained and repaired by Catholics as Catholics and not merely as citizens. * * * A government can be strong enough to deprive them by force of their possession, but no government, no law, can despoil them with justice of their rights."*

The property taken from the Church during the era of the Revolution has not been given back, though the promise of compensation for that property has been practically repudiated. However pleasing it might be to discuss the future of the Catholic Church in France, that aspect of the question is not a subject for history.

Recent Franco-German relations will be discussed in connection with Morocco.

* Rev. Dr. George M. Sauvage, C. S. C., in *Catholic University Bulletin*, January, 1907.

To whom does the Church property in France really belong? Did the government ever restore what it took from the Church? Has the State kept its agreement?

BOOK VII

ENGLAND

CHAPTER I

ENGLAND FROM THE CONQUEST BY THE ROMANS.—B. C. 55 TO A. D. 827.

IN pursuing the history of England, the mind is forcibly struck with her gradual rise from a low state of barbarism to the highest point of civilization and refinement. Early records represent her as a weak and defenceless province, prostrate at the feet of a foreign empire, while her present history exhibits her as a nation ranking among the highest in power, in the arts of peace and war, and by her commerce holding communion with the most distant regions of the earth.

2. The authentic history of England can be traced only from its conquest by the Roman arms. A part of the island was invaded and conquered by Julius Cæsar, fifty-five years before the Christian era. According to ancient writers, the first inhabitants were a tribe of Gauls or Celts, who had landed on the island from the neighboring continent. This is probable, as their language, manners, and mode of government bear a striking resemblance to each other. Although, comparatively speaking, in a state of barbarism, the inhabitants had made some slight progress in civilization and had gained some knowledge of agriculture previous to the invasion of the Romans. They lived in huts built in the forest, clothed themselves in the skins of beasts, and lived on the milk and flesh of their herds. They were not wholly ignorant of the art of war; their armies, which consisted principally of foot soldiers, were equipped chiefly with the bow, the shield, and the lance. They had, moreover, a kind of war-chariot set with scythes, which caused dreadful slaughter when driven among their enemies.

CHAPTER I.—1. In pursuing the history of England, how is the mind struck? How do early records represent her? Her present history?—2. What is said of the authentic history? According to ancient writers, what were the inhabitants? How did they live? Of what did their armies consist?

ENGLAND
CHAPS. I - VII.
B.C. 55 - A.D. 1485.
Bannockburn.
Dunbar
Otterburn
FIRTH OF CLYDE
CALEDONIA
NORTHUMBERLAND
Hexham
Tyne R.
Newcastle
Carlisle
Neville's Cross
Richmond
SOLWAY
IRISH SEA
YORK
Towton
Aire R.
York
Lancaster
Pontefract
Wakefield
MERCIA
Liverpool
LANCASHIRE
R. Trent
WASH
WALES
Shrewsbury
Litchfield
Leicester
Bosworth
Worcester
Warwick
Evesham
Bedford
Cambridge
Tewesbury
PEMBROKE
Gloucester
Oxford
St. Albans
Barnet
Berkeley
London
Windsor
Runnymede
Thames
BRISTOL CHANNEL
Canterbury
KENT
Glastonbury
Salisbury
Winchester
WESSEX
SUSSEX
Lewes
Pevensey
Hastings
Calais
DOVER
DEVONSHIRE
JUTES
Isle of Wight
STR. Agincourt
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Scale of Miles
0 20 40 60 80
FRANCE

3. The religion of the ancient Britons was Druidism, a degrading form of superstition. Their priests, called Druids, possessed an unbounded control over the minds of the people. They taught the absurd doctrine of the transmigration of the soul, and offered human victims to appease the wrath of their gods. The oak was considered the peculiar residence of the Deity, and at their religious solemnities both the priest and the people wore chaplets of oak, and covered the altars with its leaves. No vestiges of their sacred groves are now to be found, but the ruins of their temples, which still remain, show that they had attained at an early period a considerable advancement in the mechanical arts.

4. Such was the condition of Britain when it attracted the ambition of a Roman general. Julius Cæsar, who had conquered a part of Germany and all Gaul, now cast his eye upon the isle of Britain. He was not allured wholly by the prospect of wealth or the richness of the soil, but was led on by the ambition of carrying his arms into a region which before was considered inaccessible to the flight of the Roman eagle. With this view, having collected a numerous fleet, he embarked with about ten thousand of his troops. On his arrival in sight of the coast he beheld it covered with Britons, prepared to dispute his landing. Not a little surprised on meeting with such determined resistance, the Roman soldiers remained some time in doubtful suspense, until the standard-bearer of the tenth legion, leaping into the sea, advanced towards the shore, declaring that he would do his duty to Cæsar and to Rome.

5. His example was followed by his companions; they gained the shore and put themselves in order of battle. The undisciplined Britons, unable to cope with Roman legions, were routed and fled in confusion. Although discomfited for the time, they were not conquered, but rallying under their respective leaders, they attacked the invader, who soon retired to the continent with all his forces. Cæsar, however, was indefatigable in whatever he undertook. Returning the following year, he again overran the island, forced the inhabitants to a subjection rather nominal than real, obliged them to give hostages for their future obedience, and again returned

3. What is said of religion? What did they teach and offer? What is said of the oak? What do the ruins of their temples show?—4. What is said of Cæsar? By what was he allured?—What is said of the Roman soldiers?—5. What is said of the Britons? What did they soon oblige the invader to do? What did Cæsar again do?

to Gaul. Cæsar did not conquer Britain; he merely made it known to Rome.

6. In the reign of Claudius, A. D. 44, the Roman arms were again directed toward the subjugation of Britain. For nine years the famous Carac'tacus bravely defended his dominions against the power of Rome; but being at length defeated by the Roman General Ostorius, he was taken prisoner and led captive to Rome. As he passed through the streets and beheld the splendor of the city, he was heard to exclaim, "Alas! how is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home, should envy Carac'tacus his humble cottage in Britain." In A. D. 59, during the reign of the Emperor Nero, Sueto'nius was sent to conduct the war against the Britons. He defeated them under their celebrated Queen Boadice'a, who put an end to her own life to avoid falling into the hands of the conquerors. But the final subjugation was effected during the reign of Titus by Aric'ola, who conquered Galcagus, a distinguished Caledonian chief, and established the Roman dominion over all the southern part of the island, A. D. 78.

7. In order to prevent the incursions of the barbarians from Caledonia, the Romans built three walls across the northern part of the island. The first was of turf, built by the order of the Emperor Adrian, extending from Solway Frith to the mouth of the river Tyne; a second of wood, by Antonius, between the friths of Clyde and Forth; and a third of stone, by the Emperor Severus. In order to repel the irruptions of the Goths and other barbarous tribes from the north, who now found their way into the plains of Italy, the Romans were obliged to recall their legions from the protection of their more distant provinces. Impelled by this necessity, near the middle of the fifth century, they withdrew their forces entirely from Britain, leaving the inhabitants to their own resources, four hundred and sixty-five years after the landing of Julius Cæsar.

8. The northern inhabitants, the Scots and Picts, no longer intimidated by the Roman legions, demolished the walls and carried their devastations over the southern part of the island. The Britons, unable to protect themselves, sent deputies so-

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6. What took place in 44? What is said of Caractacus? What did he exclaim? In A. D. 59, what took place? When was the subjugation finally effected?—7. To prevent the incursions of the barbarians, what did the Romans do? By whom were they built? When were their forces entirely withdrawn from Britain?—8. What did the northern inhabitants do?

liciting the aid of the Saxons, a warlike people inhabiting the north of Germany. The invitation was gladly accepted. A Saxon army of sixteen hundred men, under the command of two brothers, Hen'gist and Hor'sa, was sent to their relief; and the Scots and Picts were soon compelled to retire to their own dominions. The Saxons, having expelled the Scots and Picts, instead of returning to their own country, turned their arms against the Britons themselves, and sending for a reinforcement of Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, they took possession of the country and reduced the inhabitants to subjection. From the Angles, the name England is derived.

9. A series of contests ensued between the inhabitants and the invaders. Among the chieftains who opposed the Saxons, Arthur stands conspicuous. This renowned prince, whose name is famous in legend and history, is said to have defeated them in many signal engagements, without, however, being able to effect the deliverance of his country. After a contest of nearly one hundred and fifty years, the Saxons succeeded in establishing their power, and erected a Hep'tarchy, or seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, which continued for about two hundred years, and exhibited during that period an almost unbroken series of dissensions and sanguinary contests. At length Eg'bert, king of Wessex, a man of superior talents, prudence, and valor, united them into one kingdom, under the name of England, about the year 827.

10. Previous to this period, the light of Christianity had shone upon the island. Towards the close of the sixth century, St. Augustine was commissioned by Pope Gregory the Great* to carry the glad tidings of salvation to the inhabitants of Britain. The Saint, accompanied by forty monks, set out for England; and having arrived in the island, announced to Eth'elbert, king of Kent, the object of his mission. Ethelbert and his queen,† attended by a vast retinue of their warlike subjects, kindly received the missionaries, and gave them an audience in the open air. St. Augustine explained the doctrines of the Catholic Church. The king

* This illustrious Pontiff died in 605.

† Bertha, Queen of Kent, was the daughter of the king of Paris, and had been reared a Christian.

To whom did the Britons apply for aid? Having expelled the Scots and Picts, what did the Saxons do?—9. Among the chieftains, who is conspicuous? What is said of him? After a contest of one hundred and fifty years, what did the Saxons establish? What is said of Egbert?—10. Towards the close of the sixth century what took place? What is said of St. Augustine?

shortly after this received baptism publicly, and such was the salutary influence of his example that ten thousand of his subjects are said to have been baptized in a single day.

Such is a brief account of the conversion of the Jutes. The influence of Irish monks won the Angles of the north to the doctrines of Christianity. But long before the coming of St. Augustine there were Christians in Britain. During the era of Roman occupation the Christian body was numerous. By Diocletian and Maximian they were severely persecuted. These British Christians were almost extirpated by the pagan Anglo-Saxons.

CHAPTER II

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE MONARCHY TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—A. D. 827 TO 1066.

DURING the reign of Egbert the coast of Britain was visited by a formidable enemy in the Danes, who repeatedly plundered and devastated the land, destroying everything by fire and sword, and continuing to be a scourge to the country for upwards of two hundred years.

2. Nothing of great importance occurred from the reign of Egbert to that of Alfred the Great, the sixth king of England. On coming to the throne he found himself surrounded on all sides by those inveterate enemies, the Danes. In one year he is said to have defeated them in eight different battles, and succeeded in forcing them to retire from his dominions. But it was only for a short time; returning with reinforcements they extended their ravages, and obliged Alfred to solicit a peace. In his distress the king was compelled to seek shelter for his safety by retiring into obscurity, and, disguised in the dress of a peasant, he passed in the capacity of a servant several months in the cottage of a herdsman. While in this humble abode he was ordered by the herdsman's wife to take care of some cakes that she had left baking at the fire. But Alfred, whose mind was otherwise employed, forgot the injuncton he had received, and let the cakes burn; for which neglect he was severely reprimanded

What did he explain, and what followed? Who converted the Angles? What was the condition of British Christians under the Romans?

CHAPTER II.—During the reign of Egbert, by whom was the coast of Britain visited?—2. On coming to the throne, how did Alfred find himself? In this distress, what is related of him?

by his mistress, who told him that he was always pleased to eat her cakes, though negligent in toasting them.

3. From his retreat he carefully observed the movements of the Danes, who from success had become careless, and watched the earliest opportunity of again placing himself at the head of his followers, who had lately gained some slight advantage over their enemies. In order to ascertain the state of the Danish army, he disguised himself as a harper, entered their camp and played for the amusement of the soldiers; he was even introduced to Guthrum, the Danish prince, in whose tent he remained for several days. Having thus learned in person the unguarded condition of the Danes, he returned to his followers, and placing himself at their head, attacked the enemy by surprise, and routed them with great slaughter.

4. Having subdued the enemies of his country and restored peace to his kingdom, Alfred turned his attention towards repairing the evils they had caused, and improving the moral condition of his subjects. He invited to his dominions the most eminent scholars from all parts of Europe; established schools for the instruction of his people; composed a code of laws, and, according to many historians, he established the trial by jury, and translated various works into the Saxon language. It is recorded of Alfred that he executed forty corrupt judges in one year; and so exact and impartial were the police regulations that, it is said, he suspended gold bracelets by the highway, and no one was found to lay a rapacious hand upon them.

5. He usually divided his time into three equal parts; one of which was employed in study and devotion; a second in the discharge of business; and the third in sleep and recreating his body by exercise and diet; these divisions he exactly measured by burning tapers of equal length. Alfred has been justly regarded by disinterested historians as one of the wisest and most illustrious princes that ever adorned the English throne. He was distinguished equally for his private virtues and his public character, justly reputed the greatest writer, warrior, legislator, and statesman of his age. He was succeeded by his son Edward, surnamed the Elder, A. D. 901. Edward inherited much of the military spirit of his father,

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3. From his retreat, what did he carefully do? In order to ascertain the state of the Danish camp, what did he do?—4. Having subdued his enemies, what did Alfred do? What is recorded of him?—5. How did he divide his time? For what was he distinguished? By whom was he succeeded? What is said of Edward?

and his reign was almost one continued contest with the Danes.

6. Edward was succeeded by his brother At'helstan, a prince of great ability; he carried on a successful war against the Danes, Scots, and Northumbrians; strengthened and enlarged his kingdom, caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon language, and enacted a law conferring the title of thane, or gentleman, on every merchant who should make three voyages to the Mediterranean Sea.

7. Edmund, his brother, succeeded to the throne. The reign of this king was short, and his death tragical. As he was celebrating a festival in Gloucester, the notorious robber Leolf, whom Edmund had banished, entered the hall where the king was dining, and took his seat among his attendants; being ordered to leave the apartment, he refused to obey; upon this Edmund rose and seized him by the hair; Leolf, drawing his dagger, killed the king upon the spot. Edmund was succeeded by his brother Edred, whose reign was distinguished by the final subjection of Northumbria. He had for one of his principal advisers St. Dun'stan, the learned and venerable Abbot of Glastonbury. The king deposited with him all his treasures and the title of his lands, and earnestly besought him to accept the vacant bishopric of Winchester, which preferment he declined. Edred, whose constitution was naturally weak, expired in the tenth year of his reign, and left the throne to Edwin.

8. Edwin, or Edwy, is generally represented by contemporary writers as a prince of a profligate character, whose reign would scarcely be worthy of notice were it not for several disputed points which occupy a considerable space in some of our modern histories. Elgiva, a lady of high birth, conceiving the design of securing for herself, or daughter, the dignity of queen, and with the view of captivating Edwin's affections, one or the other, was constantly in his company. On the day of his coronation, after the banquet was over, Edwin hastily left the hall where his nobles were seated, and repaired to the company of Elgiva and her daughter. His nobles, considering his departure as an in-

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6. By whom was Edward succeeded? What were his principal acts?—7. Who succeeded to the throne? Relate the circumstances of his death. By whom was he succeeded? To whom did Edred leave the throne?—8. How is Edwin represented? What is said of Elgiva? On the day of his coronation, what is said of Edwin? What did his nobles do?

sult, appointed the Bishop of Litchfield and the Abbot of Glastonbury, in the name of the whole assembly, to go and recall the king. They found him in a most unbecoming situation with Elgiva and her daughter, and, having placed the crown upon his head, they conducted him back into the hall.

9. Shortly after this, St. Dunstan was banished from the kingdom at the instigation of Elgiva, and Edwin was married. This event, it was natural to expect, would put an end to his relations with Elgiva. Whether on that occasion she was sent to her husband, or committed to the care of her kinsmen, does not appear; but the king, instigated by his passions, or by her solicitations, carried her off by force, and placed her on one of the royal farms. Archbishop Odo undertook to remove the scandal by enforcing the existing laws against women of abandoned character. Through his influence she was removed from the farm and banished to Ireland.

10. In the second year of his reign, the Mercians having rejected his authority, Edwin marched against them in person, but was defeated, and fled with precipitation into Wessex. Elgiva, who had returned from banishment, accompanied him on his flight. At Gloucester she fell into the hands of the insurgents, who put her to death in a most cruel manner. That she was not married to Edwin, at least at the time of his coronation, will appear evident by consulting the original extracts from the historians of that period, to be found in Lingard's notes to his *History of England.* (Vol. 3, page 311.)

11. Edwin died shortly after the Mercian war, and was succeeded by his brother Edgar, A. D. 959. One of the first acts of the new monarch was to recall from exile the Abbot of Glastonbury, who received episcopal consecration, and was appointed to the Bishopric of Worcester, but was afterwards translated to the metropolitan see of Canterbury. The reign of Edgar was rendered memorable for being the period in which England was freed from wolves; by offering a reward for each head, he produced such diligence in the search of them that the race shortly disappeared.

12. Hearing of the extraordinary beauty of Elfrida, daughter of the Earl of Devonshire, he sent his favorite Athelwold to ascertain if her beauty corresponded with the report.

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9. Shortly after this, what took place? What did Odo undertake? —10. In the second year of his reign, what took place? What is said of Elgiva? What will appear evident?—11. What was one of the first acts of Edgar? For what is his reign memorable?—12. Hearing of the beauty of Elfrida, what did he do?

Athelwold was so completely overcome by the charms of Elfrida, that he resolved, if possible, to espouse her himself. Accordingly on his return he represented to the king that her beauty had been greatly exaggerated, and that she was not handsome; but on account of her wealth, he thought she would be a suitable match for an earl, and thus obtained the king's permission to marry her. Having afterwards discovered the treachery, Edgar resolved to be avenged, and while hunting brutally murdered Athelwold with his own hand, and shortly afterwards espoused Elfrida.

13. Edgar was succeeded by his son, Edward, surnamed the Martyr, in consequence of his having been assassinated at the instigation of his step-mother, Elfrida, who was induced to this crime for the purpose of procuring the crown for her own son.

Ethelred II next ascended the throne. Historians have given him the surname of Unready, from his failure to provide himself with counsellors. He was a weak and inactive prince. During his reign the Danes again invaded the kingdom under Sweyn, their king. Ethelred fled to Normandy, leaving the kingdom in the hands of the invaders. The people, thus left without a leader, quietly acknowledged the Danish sovereign; but on the death of Sweyn, Ethelred was again restored. After an unfortunate reign of thirty-five years, Ethelred died, leaving the throne to his son Edmund, surnamed Ironside, on account of his great strength and valor; but courage and abilities were unable to save his declining country.

14. Canu'te, the son of Sweyn, having succeeded to the throne of Denmark, also asserted his claim to the crown of England, invaded the country with a powerful army, and compelled the English monarch to divide his dominions with him. In a month after this event, Edmund was murdered at Oxford by the treachery of Edric, his brother-in-law, and Canute was acknowledged sole monarch of England. He was one of the most powerful rulers of his time, and received the appellation of Great, from his talents and the success of his arms. The early part of his life was stained with acts

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What is related of Athelwold? What was his end?—13. By whom was Edgar succeeded? What was his end? Who next ascended the throne? Who invaded the kingdom? What became of Ethelred? What did the people do? By whom was Ethelred succeeded?—14. What is said of Canute? What was he? By what was his early life stained?

of cruelty, but the latter part was distinguished for mildness and benevolence. After a reign of eighteen years, he died much lamented by his subjects.

15. Canute was succeeded by his son Har'old, whose principal amusement was the chase; he received the surname of Harefoot, from his swiftness in running. He was a prince of a weak and profligate character. He reigned only three years, and was succeeded by his brother, Hardicanute, the last of the Danish kings, whose reign was only distinguished for his cruelty and vices.

16. As the late king left no issue, the English availed themselves of this opportunity to shake off the Danish yoke, and again restored the Saxon line in the person of Edward, the son of Ethelred. Edward was distinguished for the mildness of his disposition and for his personal virtues. After his death he was beatified by the Pope, and received the surname of the Confessor.

By the death of Edward, England was replunged into all the miseries of war. As he died without issue, the English crown was claimed by several competitors, among whom Harold, the son of the famous Earl Godwin, and William, Duke of Normandy, were the most powerful. Harold, however, being present at Edward's death, quietly stepped into the vacant throne, and was joyfully acknowledged by the whole nation. William of Normandy resolved to assert his claim to the crown of England by force of arms. Having collected a numerous fleet, he sailed from St. Valery, in France, and landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, with an army of sixty thousand men.

17. He was met by Harold with an army equally numerous. The night previous to the engagement the two armies had pitched their camps in sight of each other, and waited with impatience for the coming of the morning. As soon as the day dawned, they were drawn out in array, and awaited the signal for the combat. The two monarchs appeared at the head of their armies, William on horseback, and Harold on foot, in the centre of the host. The memorable battle of Hastings followed. Long and bloody was the contest. At

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15. By whom was Canute succeeded? What is said of him?—16. As the king left no issue, what took place? How was Edward distinguished? By whom was the sceptre claimed? What did Harold do? What did William resolve?—17. The night previous to the engagement, what is said of the armies? Of the two monarchs? Describe the battle.

length the valor of the English yielded, and victory declared in favor of the Normans; the nation submitted to the sceptre of William, who in consequence was called the Conqueror.

CHAPTER III

THE NORMAN FAMILY; WILLIAM I, THE CONQUEROR; WILLIAM II; HENRY I; STEPHEN OF BLOIS.—FROM A. D. 1066 TO 1154.

AFTER the battle of Hastings the spirit of the English was broken; city after city submitted to the Conqueror, until he found himself firmly seated on the English throne.

Though William was a sovereign possessed of great ability as a statesman and a warrior, yet many of his acts have stamped upon his reign the charge of cruelty and oppression. He was remarkable in his person, being tall and well proportioned, and possessed of such strength that few persons of that age were found who could bend his bow or wield his arms.

2. As was natural to expect, he entertained a partiality for his Norman followers, and advanced them to all the posts of honor and distinction—a measure which did not fail to excite the disaffection of his English subjects, who made several attempts to throw off the yoke; but their endeavors were fruitless, and only tended to strengthen the chains of their bondage. He endeavored, in a manner, to abolish the English language by causing the youths throughout the kingdom to learn the French tongue. No other language was used at court or in the more fashionable society; hence proceeded that mixture of Latin words which we find at present in the English tongue. Like the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Roumanian, French is derived from the Latin speech. Being much addicted to the pleasure of the chase, he reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of killing game throughout the kingdom, and formed the New Forest by depopulating a tract of land nearly thirty miles in circuit. One of the most useful acts of his reign was his completing the Doomsday Book, which contained a register of all the estates of his kingdom.

CHAPTER III.—1. After the battle of Hastings, what is said of the English? Of William? In his person?—2. What did he entertain? What did he endeavor to abolish? What was one of the most useful acts of his reign?

3. His domestic repose was somewhat disturbed by the disunion of his three sons, who resided in a castle in Normandy. He endeavored, without effect, to compromise their differences. His unnatural son, Robert, openly revolted and declared war against his father. William besieged him in the castle of Gerberoy, where many encounters took place, resembling more the combats of chivalry than the contests of hostile armies. In one of these it happened that Robert encountered the king himself, who was concealed by a helmet. A fierce personal combat ensued. At length the young prince wounded and dismounted his father. The king called out for assistance; Robert, hearing his voice, recognized his parent; and, struck with remorse, he alighted from his horse, threw himself at the feet of William, and implored his pardon. Then assisting him to mount, he saw him return to his camp. A reconciliation soon after took place through the interposition of his queen, Matilda, whom William tenderly loved. Having reached the sixty-third year of his age, William died on the continent, at the monastery of St. Gervais, in the twenty-first year of his reign.

4. William II, surnamed Rufus, from his ruddy complexion, succeeded his father on the English throne, A. D. 1087. His reign was marked by many acts of cruelty and perfidy. As he was hunting in the New Forest, he was accidentally shot by Sir Walter Tyrrel, who had aimed an arrow at a stag. He had reigned thirteen years.

5. Henry I, the younger brother of William, taking advantage of the absence of his brother Robert, the rightful heir, who was then on a crusade to the Holy Land, ascended the throne. Robert, on his return, made preparations to gain, by force of arms, the crown of England, of which he had been deprived during his absence. An accommodation, however, was effected between the two brothers; but Henry, shortly after this, infringed upon the treaty, and made war upon Normandy, the conquest of which he effected after the severely fought battle of Tenchebray, where Robert was taken prisoner. This unfortunate prince was detained in custody during the remainder of his life, which lasted twenty-eight

3. What is said of his domestic repose? Of his son Robert? What did William do? On one occasion what happened? When did he die?—4. By whom was William succeeded? What was his end?—5. Who next ascended the throne? What is said of Robert? Shortly after this what was done by Henry? How long was Robert detained a prisoner.

years, in a castle in Wales; leaving a melancholy proof of how feeble are the barriers which the nearest ties of kindred can afford to the raging impulse of ambition. Henry was rendered inconsolable in the latter part of his life by the loss of his only son, who was drowned on his passage from Normandy; after the news of this accident he was never seen to smile.

Henry was, in many respects, an able and accomplished sovereign, but ambitious and ungrateful.

6. On his death he left the throne to his daughter, Matilda; but Stephen, Earl of Blois, and nephew to the late king, a noble of great ability and unbounded ambition, seized the crown. Matilda immediately determined to assert her right by force of arms, and, raising an army, she defeated Stephen and took possession of the throne; but by a strange succession of events, which are tedious and by no means interesting, Stephen, in his turn, having defeated her and compelled her to leave her dominions, again ascended the throne. Henry, the son of Matilda, resolving to maintain his rightful inheritance to the English crown, invaded the country at the head of a powerful army; but an accommodation ensued by which it was agreed that Stephen should reign until his death, after which the crown should fall to Henry.

CHAPTER IV

FAMILY OF PLANTAG'ENET; HENRY II; RICHARD I; JOHN; HENRY III; EDWARD I; EDWARD II; EDWARD III; RICHARD II.—FROM A. D. 1154 TO 1399.

HENRY II, in whom were united the families of the Saxon and Norman monarchs, now ascended the British throne, at the age of twenty-one. By his marriage with El'eanor, heiress of Guien'ne, he possessed by inheritance nearly half of France. The most important achievement of this monarch's life was his invasion and conquest of Ireland, which country has remained, more or less, in a state of unhappy subjection to the English crown down to the present time. During the early part of his reign the famous Thomas

6. To whom was the throne left? What did Matilda determine? Who invaded the country? What ensued?

CHAPTER IV.—Who now ascended the British throne? Whom did he marry? What was the most important achievement?

à Becket, a man of extraordinary ability, held the first place in the favor of the king, who promoted him to the office of High Chancellor, and made him preceptor of the young princes. Becket displayed a magnificence equal to his dignity; his table was free of access to every person who had business at court; he took precedence of all the lay barons, and among his vassals he numbered upwards of a hundred knights.

2. Henry lived on terms of the greatest familiarity with his chancellor and seemed to have resigned into his hands the government of his dominions. About this time it happened that the See of Canterbury became vacant, and Becket, on account of his situation, was pointed to as the person most likely to fill it. Accordingly the king sent a message to the chancellor, who was then on the continent, to repair to England, intimating to him at the same time that in a few days he would be Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket replied that if the king were serious he begged permission to decline the preferment, because it would be impossible for him to perform the duties of that station, and at the same time to retain the favor of his sovereign. But Henry was inflexible, and insisted on his accepting the preferment. Becket at length, much against his own judgment, was induced to acquiesce. Shortly after his return to England he was ordained priest, and in a few days received episcopal consecration.

3. Becket, whose private life had always been marked by the strictest integrity and morality, now began to think more seriously of acquiring those virtues that more particularly adorn the episcopal character. The ostentatious parade and worldly pursuits of the chancellor were instantly renounced by the Archbishop. The train of knights and noblemen who were accustomed to attend him were exchanged for a few companions, selected from among the most virtuous and learned of the clergy. His diet was abstemious and his charities were abundant. His time was occupied in prayer, study, and in the discharge of his highly responsible duties; and as he found it difficult to unite the functions of his present station with those of chancellor, he resigned this latter office into the hands of the king.

What is said of Thomas à Becket? What did he display?—2. About this time what happened? What message did the king send? How did Becket reply? What is said of Henry?—3. What is now said of Becket? How was his time occupied?

4. The good understanding which for some time subsisted between the primate and the king was not destined to be of long continuance. Henry began to make encroachments on the rights of the Church and the clergy; sought to deprive them of the privilege of being tried for offences in the ecclesiastical courts, which privilege they had enjoyed from a very early period, and required that a clergyman, after he had been degraded by the sentence of his spiritual judges, should be delivered into the custody of a lay officer to be punished by the lay tribunal. To this it was replied, that it would be placing the English clergy on a footing inferior to their brothers in any other Christian country. It was repugnant to those liberties which at his coronation the king had sworn to preserve, and it also violated the first principle of law, by requiring that the same individual should be twice punished for the same offence.

5. The king grew indignant at the opposition of the Bishops, and, in order to bring the matter to an issue, summoned a great council to meet at Clarendon. Here, by entreaties, threats, and intimidation, he prevailed on the Bishops to sign what is called the "Constitutions of Clarendon." As several articles in this constitution were derogatory to the rights of the Church, and infringed the papal jurisdiction, by prohibiting appeals to the Sovereign Pontiff, without the king's consent, the Bishops, in signing it, had sacrificed their conscience.

6. As the Primate returned, he meditated in silence on his conduct in the council, and saw the error into which intimidation had betrayed him; he bewailed his fault and immediately retracted his assent. His conduct inflamed anew the indignation of Henry. At length the Archbishop thought it prudent to withdraw for a season from England, and retired into France.

7. A reconciliation was soon after effected between Henry and the Primate, who again returned to England, carrying letters of suspension or excommunication from the Pope, against the Bishops of York, London, and Salisbury. The Bishops, on receiving these letters, burst into violent com-

4. What did Henry begin to do? What did he require? To this what was replied?—5. What did the king summon? Here what did he prevail on the Bishops to sign? What were several articles in this constitution?—6. As the primate returned, what is said of him? What did he think proper to do?—7. What was soon after effected? What did the Bishops do on receiving these letters?

plaints against the Primate, and hastened into Normandy to seek redress from the king. Henry, in a moment of irritation, exclaimed, "Of all the cowards who eat at my table, is there not one who will free me from this turbulent priest?" Four of his knights, who were present, taking this for the royal approbation, bound themselves by oath to carry off or murder the Primate.

8. They immediately set out for England, hastened to Canterbury, and entering the palace of the Archbishop, they upbraided him with his insolence to the king. As they left his apartment, the hour for Vespers arrived, and the undaunted prelate went unattended to the cathedral. He was ascending the steps of the choir when the wretched assassins entered the church. One of them cried out, "Where is the traitor?" To this no answer was returned. But when another asked, "Where is the Archbishop?" the prelate replied, "Here is the Archbishop, but no traitor." Upon this one of the murderous ruffians aimed a blow which wounded him on the head. As the saintly and heroic man felt the blood trickling down his face, he clasped his hands, and bowing down, he said, "In the name of Christ and for the defence of His Church, I am ready to die." In this posture he turned towards his murderers, and under their repeated blows he sank to the floor, at the foot of the altar of St. Benedict.

9. Thus perished St. Thomas à Becket, a martyr to duty and religion. His death was the triumph of his cause. The Church seemed to derive new vigor from the death of her champion. The first news of this event filled Henry with consternation and alarm; he now lamented, when too late, the hasty expression that had led to the commission of so terrible a crime. But subsequent events caused the monarch to think more seriously on this transaction than at present. Some few years afterwards he beheld his sons uniting in rebellion against him, in conjunction with his perfidious barons. Such things, he concluded, were not in the ordinary course of nature; they could be no other than the effects of the divine wrath which he had enkindled by his persecution of the holy Archbishop.

What did Henry exclaim? What did the four knights do?—8. As they left his apartment, what took place? What did one of the number cry out? What did the prelate reply? Upon this, what was done? In bowing down, what did he say?—9. What is said of Henry at the first news of this event? Some years afterwards, what did he behold? What did he conclude?

10. The name of the prelate had been lately enrolled by the Pope in the catalogue of the saints, and the fame of the miracles wrought at his shrine resounding through every part of Europe, Henry, to expiate his offence, resolved to make a pilgrimage to the tomb of the martyr. For this purpose he hastily set sail for England, and when he came within sight of Canterbury, he dismounted from his horse and walked, without any covering on his feet, towards the city. As he entered the gate, it was observed that his footsteps were stained with blood. Without making any delay, he hastened to the cathedral, and there threw himself at the foot of the tomb, while the Bishop of London addressed the spectators. As soon as the prelate had concluded his discourse, Henry arose and repaired to the chapter-house of the convent, where the monks, a few Bishops, and Abbots were assembled. Before them, the royal penitent on his knees, confessed his crime, and received on his shoulders, with a knotted cord, a few stripes from each. After this extraordinary act of humiliation he returned again to the shrine and spent the night in prayer.

11. The latter part of his life was embittered by the unnatural conduct of his sons, who, aided by the king of France, joined in a second rebellion against their father. On receiving a list of those who had conspired to deprive him of his crown, the first name that caught his eye was that of his favorite son, John. He read no more, but returned the paper with a broken heart. At first he sank into a deep melancholy. This was followed by a raging fever, during which he called down the heaviest denunciations of Heaven on his ungrateful children. He died in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign. Henry, in some respects, may be ranked among the ablest of the English monarchs. He possessed distinguished ability as a statesman and warrior. But his character was really contemptible, and his private life anything but edifying. His passion was said to be the raving of a madman—the fury of a wild beast. He was alternately the sport of pride, anger, ambition, and duplicity.

12. Richard I, surnamed *Cœur de Lion,* or the Lion-hearted, now ascended the throne, and endeavored to atone,

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10. What is said of the name of the prelate? What did Henry resolve to do? Relate what followed.—11. What is said of the latter part of his life? What are the circumstances of his death? When did he die? What is said of him?—12. Who succeeded to the throne?

in some measure, for his ungrateful conduct towards his father, by renouncing those who had assisted in the unnatural rebellion, and receiving into his favor the ministers of the former reign. Richard was a prince of a chivalrous and romantic turn of mind. Shortly after his accession to the throne, he engaged in the Crusades, and in conjunction with Philip Augustus, of France, embarked on an expedition to the Holy Land. Here his personal valor was conspicuous in every engagement. He defeated the celebrated Saladin in the memorable battle of Ascalon, in which forty thousand Saracens were slain, and finally compelled him to conclude a treaty of peace.

13. On his return homeward, being shipwrecked, he endeavored to pass in disguise through Germany, but was discovered and detained a prisoner by the Emperor, Henry VI, who released him, after a long confinement, on the payment of £300,000. Having regained his liberty, he returned to his own dominions, from which he had been absent for nearly four years. The year following, having laid siege to the castle of Chalus, he received a wound of which he died, in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age. Richard has been styled the Achilles of modern times; his achievements more resemble the deeds of a hero of romance than those of a wise and politic sovereign.

14. John, the brother of Richard, succeeded to the throne. His reign is regarded as one of the most infamous in English history. His nephew, Arthur, the son of Geoffrey, an elder brother, was the rightful heir to the crown. The young prince happened to fall into the power of John, by whom he was basely murdered, lest at any future period he might assert his claim. This act of treachery excited universal disgust. Philip Augustus, of France, supported the claim of Arthur, and, to avenge his death, deprived the English monarch of his French possessions.

15. John, although his queen was yet alive, indulged a base passion for Isabella, daughter of Aymar, Count of Angoulême, a lady who had been already betrothed to the Count de la Marche, though, by reason of her age, the marriage had not been consummated. Having procured a divorce

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In what did he engage? Whom did he defeat?—13. On his return, what happened to him? What occasioned his death? What is said of Richard?—14. Who succeeded to the throne? What act of treachery did he commit? Of what was he deprived?—15. What is now related of John?

from his own wife, he espoused Isabella. The Sovereign Pontiffs, during the Middle Ages, were frequently called on to interpose their spiritual power to shield the people from oppression, and to arrest the vices and check the passions of their rulers, and even the jurisprudence of that period accorded to the Pope, on some extraordinary occasions, the power of absolving the people from their allegiance to their sovereign.

16. On this occasion, Innocent III remonstrated with John without effect. Another circumstance, which happened at this time, caused the Pope to put in execution the full extent of his spiritual power. It had been a custom from an early period, in England, to consult the king in the appointment of a Bishop to fill any of the vacant sees. It happened at this time that the Bishopric of Canterbury became vacant, and Langton was chosen to fill it. The Pope thought proper to depart from the usual custom, and confirmed the appointment without consulting the king, whose late conduct had given so much scandal to his subjects. John, highly incensed at this, sent two of his knights to expel the monks from the convent, and vented his rage on all who had any hand in the selection. For this infringement of his spiritual jurisdiction the Pope proceeded to place the kingdom under an Interdict, a measure which was only resorted to on extraordinary occasions, and one calculated to strike the mind with sensations of awe.

17. While it remained in force the nation was deprived of all the exterior exercises of religion; the altars were despoiled of their ornaments; the crosses, relics, pictures, and statues of the saints were laid on the ground and covered up; the bells were removed from the church; Mass was celebrated with closed doors; the laity partook of no religious rites except Baptism, and Communion to the dying; the dead were not interred in consecrated ground, and marriage was celebrated in the churchyard.

18. John, at length overcome by the evils which he had brought on his kingdom, yielded his obstinacy, became reconciled to the Church, and, fearful of the invasion of the French monarch, surrendered his crown to the Pope, from whom he consented to hold it as a vassal. In the meantime his natural disposition for tyranny seemed to increase. He despised his

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What is said of the Sovereign Pontiffs?—16. Relate the circumstances which caused the Pope to put in execution the extent of his spiritual power? To what did the Pope now proceed?—17. While it remained in force, of what was the kingdom deprived?—18. Fearful of the invasion of the French monarch, what did John do?

nobles, and sought every opportunity of infringing their privileges. The barons at length, unable to support his tyrannical exactions, under the direction of Cardinal Langton, the Primate, formed a confederacy against him. They met at Runnymede and compelled him, after much opposition, to sign and seal the famous document called *Magna Charta,* which is even now regarded as the great bulwark of English liberty, and by which important immunities and privileges are secured to every order of men in the kingdom. This event occurred A. D. 1215. John died the following year, after an odious reign of eighteen years, with scarcely a single virtue to redeem a thousand vices.

His son, Henry III, succeeded to the throne at the age of nine years, under the guardianship of the Earl of Pembroke. The history of this reign consists of little more than a recital of a series of internal contests between the king and his turbulent barons. Henry was a weak and timid prince; gentle and mild in his disposition; but he greatly displeased the nation by his partiality to foreigners.

The barons, with the Earl of Leicester at their head, took up arms and compelled the king to resign his authority to twenty-four of their number, and having thus divided all the offices of the government among themselves, they disregarded the privileges of the crown and trampled on the rights of the people. But the knights of the Shire, who now began to assemble separately from the lords, indignant at the usurpation of Leicester and his confederate barons, took up arms in favor of the king. A battle was fought at Lewes, in which the royal army was defeated, and the king, with his son, Edward, made prisoner.

19. Leicester now compelled the king to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty; assumed the character of regent, and called a parliament, consisting of two knights from each shire, and deputies from the principal boroughs. From this period is generally dated the first outline of the present English House of Commons. Young Edward having at length regained his liberty, in conjunction with the Duke of Gloucester, took the field against Leicester, who was defeated and slain in the famous battle of Evesham. Henry was again re-

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What is said of the barons? Where did they meet? What was the king compelled to sign? When did John die? Who succeeded? What is said of his history? What was he compelled to do by the barons? What battle was fought?—19. What did Leicester now do? What is said of young Edward?

stored to the throne, but died shortly after this event, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-sixth of his reign, A. D. 1272.

20. Edward, who had early given indications of distinguished military ability, was absent on a Crusade at the time of his father's death. On one occasion, as he sat in his tent, an assassin entered and aimed a poisoned arrow at his breast; he found means to ward off the blow, but received a wound in his arm. His devoted queen, Eleanor of Castile, saved his life, at the evident risk of her own, by extracting the poison by applying her mouth to the wound. He had advanced as far as Sicily on his return, when he received information of his father's death.

21. On his arrival in England, he was received with joy by all classes of the people, and immediately turned his attention towards removing the disorders which filled the state during the preceding reign. Having restored order and tranquillity at home, he turned his arms towards the subjugation of Wales, and having defeated and slain Llewe'llyn, the king, he annexed that country to the English crown, and created his eldest son Prince of Wales, a title which at the present time distinguishes the eldest son of the English monarch. Edward was shortly afterwards made umpire in a dispute between Robert Bruce and John Ba'liol, respecting the succession to the Scottish throne. He adjudged the crown to Baliol, who engaged to hold it as a vassal of the English monarch. He, however, threw off his allegiance, and Edward invaded Scotland with a powerful army, defeated the Scots in the battle of Dunbar, subdued the kingdom, and carried Baliol captive to England.

22. The Scots, who had unwillingly submitted to the yoke of subjugation, were roused to assert their independence through the influence of the renowned hero, Sir William Wallace; but after a series of brilliant achievements their efforts failed for the time. The illustrious Wallace was basely betrayed into the hands of Edward, and put to death with barbarous cruelty. The Scots found, however, a more suc-

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What is said of Henry?—20. What is said of Edward? On one occasion what happened?—21. Edward having restored tranquillity at home, what did he do? Being made umpire between Bruce and Baliol, to whom did he adjudge the crown? What is said of Baliol? What did Edward do?—22. By whom were the Scots roused to assert their independence? What was the fate of Wallace?

cessful champion in the person of Robert Bruce, a grandson of Baliol, who, after he had expelled the British from the country, was restored to the throne of his ancestors. Edward having made preparation for a second invasion of Scotland, died at Carlisle, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign. This English king was eminently distinguished as a legislator and warrior, but his cruelty towards the Jews, and his cold-blooded massacre of the bards of Wales, have stamped upon his memory an indelible blot of tyranny and rapacity.

23. Edward II succeeded his father on the throne, and immediately invaded Scotland with an army of one hundred thousand men, which was met at Bannockburn by Robert Bruce, with thirty thousand. A dreadful conflict ensued, in which the English were signally defeated. Edward possessed but few qualities to distinguish him as a sovereign; he was mild in disposition, but weak and indolent, fond of pleasure, and allowed himself to be governed by unworthy favorites, which excited against him the turbulent spirit of his barons, and filled his reign with civil dissensions.

24. Isabella, his queen, a woman of the most infamous character, fixed her affections upon Mortimer, a young and powerful baron, with whom she entered into a conspiracy against the king, and compelled him to resign in favor of his son. Edward was cast into prison, and barbarously murdered at the instigation of Isabella, in Berkeley Castle, A. D. 1328.

25. Edward III succeeded to the throne in the fourteenth year of his age. During his minority, a regency of twelve persons was appointed; yet Mortimer and the infamous queen maintained their power and exercised the chief control. Almost the first act of Edward, on coming of age, was to punish the murderers of his unhappy father. Mortimer was publicly executed. Isabella was confined in the castle of Risings, where she remained for twenty-eight years, a memorable example of blasted ambition. Edward's first expedition was against the Scots, whom he defeated with great slaughter in the battle of Hallidon Hill.

In whom did they find a more successful champion? How was Edward distinguished?—23. What did Edward II do? What is said of him?—24. What is said of Isabella, his queen? What was the fate of Edward?—25. Who succeeded to the throne? What was his first act on coming of age? What was the fate of Mortimer and Isabella?

26. He claimed the crown of France, which he pretended he inherited from his mother, and resolved to maintain it by force of arms, in opposition to Philip of Valois, who had ascended the French throne. Having collected a powerful armament of two hundred and fifty sail, he departed from England, and having encountered a French fleet of four hundred ships on the coast of Flanders, he gained one of the most memorable naval victories recorded in history. The loss of the English is said to have been only four thousand men and two ships, while thirty thousand of the French fell in the engagement, with the loss of two hundred and thirty of their vessels.

27. He then invaded the country at the head of thirty thousand troops, and spread devastation wherever he advanced. He met the French monarch, who advanced to oppose him, at the head of an army of one hundred thousand men, and defeated him in the famous battle of Cressy. This battle is rendered memorable for being the first in which the English made use of cannon; also for being the scene in which Edward, the Black Prince—so called from the color of his armor—the king's eldest son, then in the sixteenth year of his age, commenced his brilliant military career. While the battle raged in its greatest fury, a messenger was dispatched desiring that succor might be sent to the aid of the prince. Edward replied to the messenger, "Go tell my son that I reserve for him the glory of this day; he will be able, without my aid, to repel the enemy." Edward having taken the city of Calais, after a memorable siege, returned again to England.

28. While the English monarch was conducting his conquests on the continent, the Scots made an irruption into his dominions at home, but were defeated in a battle at Neville's Cross by Philippa, his heroic queen, and their king was led captive to London.

John, who succeeded his father on the throne of France, resolved to expel the English from his dominions, and took the field with an army of sixty thousand men. He was met by the Black Prince and defeated in the memorable battle of Poictiers, in which he was made prisoner and conducted to

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26. What did he claim? What did he do? What was the loss on both sides?—27. What did he then do? By whom was he met? For what is the battle memorable? While the battle raged, what was done?—28. While the English monarch, etc., what did the Scots do? What battle was fought? What did the king of France resolve? By whom was he met?

London by the prince, where he was detained, a fellow-captive with David, the Scottish king.

29. Edward, who in the early part of his life had acquired such brilliant military renown, towards the end of his reign sank into indolence and indulgence, and before his death had lost all his conquests with the exception of Calais. The death of the Black Prince, whose heroic deeds were only surpassed by the amiable virtues that adorned his mind, filled the nation with sorrow, and left his father disconsolate for the loss. The king survived this event only a few months; he died in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and fifty-first of his reign, A. D. 1377.

30. Edward was one of the most illustrious princes of his age. His military achievements in France and Scotland, though unjust in their object, cast a lustre on his reign and render it one of the most brilliant in English history. During his reign Chivalry was carried to its height in England. Edward himself, and his son, the Black Prince, possessed in a high degree all the accomplishments of the knightly character. He instituted the Order of the Garter, and also built the magnificent castle of Windsor. The French language was discontinued in courts of justice during his reign.

31. Edward was succeeded by Richard II, son of the Black Prince, at the age of eleven years. During his minority the administration of the government was intrusted to his uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; of these, however, the Duke of Lancaster acted the most prominent part. In the early part of his reign the parliament levied a poll-tax of three groats upon all over the age of fifteen years. This gave great dissatisfaction on account of its injustice in exacting as much from the poor as from the rich.

32. The flame of insurrection spread through the kingdom. The insurgents found a leader in the person of Wat Tyler, a blacksmith by trade, who in a short time finding himself at the head of one hundred thousand followers, led them to Smithfield, where the king invited him to a conference. His haughty demeanor here excited the indignation of one of the king's attendants, who struck him dead upon the spot. This

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Where was he conducted?—29. What is now said of Edward? When did he die?—30. What was Edward? What is said of his military achievements? What did he institute? What was discontinued?—31. By whom was Edward succeeded? In the early part of his reign, what was done?—32. What followed? Who was the leader of the insurgents? What was the fate of Tyler?

rash act, committed in the presence of the mutineers, would have proved fatal to the king and his attendants, had it not been for the presence of mind displayed by the youthful prince, who, riding up towards them while their bows were bent for execution, exclaimed, "What, my people! will you kill your king? I myself will be your leader; follow me into the field, and you shall have what you desire."

33. The flattering hopes which the nation had formed of Richard's future greatness from his conduct on this occasion, greatly declined as he advanced in years. The northern borders were thrown into disorder by the rivalry between the family of Percy, of the north of England, and the house of Douglas, of Scotland. A very bloody battle was fought at Otterburn, in which Percy, surnamed Hotspur, was taken prisoner and Douglas slain. On this battle, it seems, is founded the celebrated ballad of Chevy Chase.

34. While Richard was absent in Ireland to quell an insurrection in that country, the young Duke of Lancaster excited a revolt against his authority in England. The king, on his return, after undergoing a mock trial, was compelled to resign his crown; while the duke, in the meantime, ascended the throne under the title of Henry IV, A. D. 1399.

The deposed monarch was imprisoned in the castle of Pontefract, where he was shortly afterwards put to death in the most cruel manner.

CHAPTER V

BRANCH OF LANCASTER: HENRY IV; HENRY V; HENRY VI.—FROM A. D. 1399 TO 1461.

HENRY thus succeeded to the throne by the deposition and murder of his lawful sovereign, and to the exclusion of the rightful heir, Edward Mortimer, whose descendants, as we will see in the sequel, after a series of contests between the York and Lancaster families, succeeded in es-

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Riding up to the insurgents, what did the prince exclaim?—33. What is said of the hopes the nation had formed of Richard? Where was a battle fought? What ballad was founded on it?—34. What is said of Richard while absent in Ireland? On his return, what took place? What became of the deposed monarch?

CHAPTER V.—1. What is said of Henry?

tablishing their disputed claim to the crown. Henry soon found that the diadem that glitters upon the brow of monarchs bears with it an empty name, and conceals beneath its splendor a thousand embittering cares unknown to the man in the humbler walks of life.

2. Scarcely was he seated on the throne when an insurrection was raised against him, headed by Northumberland, and joined by the Scots under Douglas, and the Welsh under Owen Glendower; but they were defeated by the royal forces in a desperate battle fought at Shrewsbury. The latter part of his life was embittered by the profligate conduct of his son, the Prince of Wales. On a certain occasion, one of his companions was indicted for some misdemeanor before the chief justice, Sir William Gascoigne. The young prince, who was present, became so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The venerable magistrate, impressed with the dignity of his office, ordered the prince to be committed to prison; the prince willingly submitted to the order of the judge. When the circumstance was related to the king, he exclaimed, "Happy is the king who has a magistrate endowed with courage to execute laws upon such an offender; still more happy in having a son who is willing to submit to such a chastisement." Henry died in the forty-sixth year of his age, and fourteenth of his reign, A. D. 1413.

3. Henry V, on succeeding to the throne, agreeably surprised the nation by a sudden reformation of his conduct. Calling together all his abandoned companions, he acquainted them with his design, and forbade them to appear in his presence until they had followed his example. He received with respect the faithful ministers of his father; commended Gascoigne for his impartial conduct, and exhorted him to continue in a strict execution of the laws.

4. Henry having revived his claim to the crown of France, and taking advantage of the internal disorders of that kingdom, invaded the country, at the head of only fifteen thousand men, and defeated the French army, amounting to sixty thousand men, in the famous battle of Agincourt. The

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What did he soon find?—2. By whom was an insurrection headed? What is said of the latter part of his life? What is related of Chief Justice Gascoigne? What did the king exclaim? When did Henry die?—3. What is said of Henry V? Whom did he receive?—4. What did he revive? What battle did he gain?

French lost, on this memorable occasion, eleven thousand killed and fourteen thousand prisoners, while the English lost only forty slain. After having reduced Normandy, he was declared regent of France and acknowledged heir to the crown. But having reached the summit of earthly glory, his brilliant career was cut short by the hand of death; he died in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign, A. D. 1422.

5. Henry VI, on the death of his father, succeeded to the throne at the age of ten months, and was proclaimed King of England and of France. During his minority his uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, were appointed protectors of his dominions, the former of France and the latter of England. The French, considering this a favorable moment, resolved to shake off the English yoke, and again assert the independence of their country. In this they succeeded, and Charles VII, the Dauphin, recovered by degrees the greater part of his kingdom.

6. The city of Orleans was so situated between the provinces possessed by Charles and those commanded by the regent, that it afforded easy access to either. To this point, therefore, the forces of each were directed; the French to defend, the English to reduce it. At length, after the French were reduced to the last extremity, the English were compelled to raise the siege through the courage of the renowned heroine, Joan of Arc, and shortly after they were deprived of all their possessions in France except Calais.

7. Henry, as he advanced in years, exhibited a mild and inoffensive disposition. He might, perhaps, have reigned with credit at some less turbulent period, but he was ill calculated to manage the reins of government at the time in which he lived. He married Margaret of Anjou, daughter of the king of Sicily, a woman of a heroic mind, and eminently distinguished for the part she bore in the wars that distracted his reign. The insurrection of Jack Cade was an event of considerable importance. Cade, under the assumed name of John Mortimer, collected an army of twenty thousand followers, but was defeated and slain.

What was the loss on both sides? When did he die?—5. Who succeeded? Who were appointed protectors? What did the French resolve?—6. What is said of Orleans? How was the siege of the city raised?—7. What is said of Henry? Whom did he marry? What insurrection took place?

8. The Duke of Gloucester was heir to the crown in case the king died without issue; he had opposed the marriage of Henry with Margaret, a circumstance which did not fail to render him odious in the eyes of the queen, and his death took place, a short time after, in a very suspicious manner. This event, in connection with the weak character of the king, encouraged the Duke of York to assert his claim to the crown. At this period the sanguinary contest between the houses of York and Lancaster was commenced, and by it England was for thirty years cursed with the din of arms. The nation was distracted by all the horrors of civil war, involving alike the inmates of the cottage and the castle; all the ties of affection seemed rent asunder; often was the father armed against his son; the son against his father; brother against brother, and the nearest friends against each other. The adherents of the house of Lancaster chose the red rose as a symbol of their party, while the house of York wore a white rose; hence this unhappy struggle is known in history as the War of the Roses. During this period more than one hundred thousand men were sacrificed at the unhallowed shrine of ambition.

9. In the battle of St. Albans the Lancastrians were defeated, and the king taken prisoner; but Queen Margaret still kept the field, and gained the battle of Wakefield, in which the Duke of York was defeated and slain. But Edward, his son, inherited all the ambition and abilities of his father; he was then in the bloom of youth, remarkable for the beauty of his person, his bravery and affability, which gained him the affection of the people. Confiding in his popularity more than in his right to the crown, he entered London with a numerous army, amidst the shouts of the citizens, and was proclaimed king, under the title of Edward IV, A. D. 1461.

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8. What is said of the Duke of Gloucester? At this period what commenced? What is said of the contest? What were the symbols of each party? How many were sacrificed?—9. What happened in the battle of St. Albans? What is said of Edward? Confiding in his popularity, what did he do?

CHAPTER VI

BRANCH OF YORK: EDWARD IV; EDWARD V; RICHARD III.—FROM A. D. 1461 TO 1485.

EDWARD, who had now attained the summit of his ambition, soon found that the throne was not a place for the enjoyment of tranquillity and repose. The undaunted Margaret, having collected an army of sixty thousand men, again took the field against him. Edward and the Earl of Warwick, at the head of an army much inferior in numbers, marched to oppose her. A tremendous battle was fought at Towton, in which Edward gained a decisive victory, leaving thirty-six thousand Englishmen dead upon the field.

2. The unfortunate queen, with no other attendant than her son, a boy about eight years of age, while flying from her enemies, was benighted in Hexham forest, and fell into the hands of ruffians, who despoiled her of her jewels and treated her with the greatest indignity; they, however, disputed about the spoils; and, while engaged in dispute, she effected her escape with her son into the thickest of the forest. But when overcome with fright and fatigue, and about to sink in despair, she was suddenly aroused by the approach of a robber with a drawn sword. Finding no possible means of escaping, she determined to throw herself upon his generosity. She arose as he approached, and said, "Friend, here is the son of your king; I commit him to your protection." The man, pleased with the confidence placed in him, offered every assistance in his power, and safely conducted her, with her son, to a seaport, from which she escaped, and sailed for Flanders.

3. Edward, now finding himself securely seated on the throne, began to exhibit the bias of his character. The Earl of Warwick, the most powerful nobleman in England, and one of the greatest generals of his time, had been commissioned to go to France to procure Bona of Savoy as queen for the young monarch. While he was absent, Edward hap-

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CHAPTER VI.—1. What is said of Edward? Of Margaret? What battle was fought?—2. What is related of the unfortunate queen? Finding no means of escaping, what did she do? What did the man offer and do?—3. What is now said of Edward? Where was the Earl of Warwick sent?

pened, during a hunting-party, to pay a visit to the Duchess of Bedford, at Grafton, and saw, for the first time, the young and beautiful lady, Elizabeth Gray, daughter of the Duchess. Struck with her beauty and accomplishments, he raised her to the throne, forgetful of his engagement with Bona of Savoy.

4. The earl, on his return to England, was inflamed with indignation, and leaving the court in disgust, he retired to France, where he entered into a league with Queen Margaret, and espoused the interest of the fallen monarch. Through his exertions Edward was deposed, and Henry, after having remained a prisoner in the tower for six years, was again reinstated on the throne. Thus Warwick, having restored Henry, whom he deposed, and now having removed Edward, whom he had raised to the throne, obtained the title of king-maker. Edward, who had retired to the court of the Duke of Burgundy, shortly after returned with reinforcements, and defeated the forces of Henry in the bloody battle of Barnet, in which the brave Warwick was slain.

5. The intrepid Margaret, on learning this overthrow, yielded to her destiny almost in despair, and bursting into a flood of grief, she retired to an abbey in Hampshire. But at the urgent solicitation of her adherents, she again left her retreat, and made a last and desperate effort to regain the crown in the battle of Tewkesbury, which blighted forever the last remnant of her hopes. She was taken prisoner with her son; the king asked the prince how he dared to invade his dominions, to which the youthful Edward replied, "I have entered the dominions of my father, to avenge his injuries and to redress my own." The ungenerous king, enraged at this magnanimous reply, struck the prince with his gauntlet. Some of his attendants, taking this as a signal for further violence, hurried the prince into the next apartment and dispatched him with their daggers.

6. The unhappy queen, after sustaining the cause of her husband in twelve different battles, after surviving her friends, her children, and her fortune, passed the remainder of her

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During his absence what took place?—4. What is said of the earl on his return to England? Through his exertions what was done? What was he styled? What did Edward again do?—5. What is said of Margaret? At the solicitation of her adherents, what did she again do? What was her fate? What was the reply of the youthful Edward? What was his end?—6. What is said of the unhappy queen?

days an exile in France, where she died in obscurity and neglect. Henry terminated his eventful life by assassination in prison. Edward IV passed the remainder of his reign in acts of tyranny and cruelty. He caused his brother, the Duke of Clarence, to be condemned for a trifling offence, and being allowed to choose the manner of his death, he was drowned in a cask of Malmsey wine.

These acts of cruelty were soon terminated by the death of the king himself; he died in the forty-second year of his age, A. D. 1482. During this monarch's reign, the art of printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, of London.*

7. Edward IV left two sons. The eldest, being only thirteen years of age, succeeded to the throne under the title of Edward V. The Duke of Gloucester, brother of the late king, being appointed protector during the young king's minority, after causing Lord Hastings, and other distinguished persons, to be put to death without trial, seized upon the crown, under the pretence that his nephews were illegitimate, and caused himself to be proclaimed king, by the title of Richard III. The two young princes shortly afterwards disappeared, and are said to have been barbarously smothered in the tower by the order of the king himself.

8. Richard, who had gained the throne by imbruing his hands in the blood of the lawful heirs, was not destined long to enjoy the ill-gotten crown. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, the only surviving heir to the house of Lancaster, advanced his title to the crown, and, assisted by the king of France, once more revived the almost extinguished spirit of his party. A decisive battle was fought at Bosworth, in which Richard was slain; his rival was crowned upon the field of battle, and assumed the title of Henry VII, A. D. 1485.

This event terminated the long and bloody contest between the houses of York and Lancaster, which had entailed so many evils upon the nation, and reduced it almost to a state of barbarism—the arts of peace being entirely neglected for those of war.

* The first book printed in England was *The Game and Play of Chess*, in 1474.

Of Henry? Of Edward IV? What did he cause? When did he die? By whom was printing introduced?—7. What did Edward leave? What did the Duke of Gloucester do? What is said of the two young princes?—8. What is said of Richard? Of Henry Tudor? Where was the battle fought? What was the result?

ENGLAND
A D 1485 - 1901
CHAPS. VII - X
Dunbar
Flodden Field
SCOTLAND
NORTHUMBERLAND
Tyne R.
Sunderland
SOLWAY F.
CUMBERLAND
NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
Lancaster
Marston Moor
York
Preston
Stafford
Leicester
NORFOLK
Ouse R.
Naseby
Warwick
Worcester
MONMOUTH
Severn R.
Evesham
Tewkesbury
Bedford
Ipswich
SUFFOLK
WALES
Gloucester
Oxford
ESSEX
R. Thames
London
Marlborough
Winsor
SURREY
Canterbury
KENT
SUSSEX
Taunton
SOMERSET
Bristol
Is. of WIGHT
Straits of DOVER
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Scale of Miles
0 20 40 60 80
FRANCE

CHAPTER VII

TUDOR FAMILY: HENRY VII; HENRY VIII; EDWARD VI; MARY; ELIZABETH.—FROM A. D. 1485 TO 1603.

THE succession of Henry to the throne was an event highly favorable to the nation, as it put an end to the ruinous civil wars that had so long devastated the kingdom. By marrying Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV, he strengthened his claim, and thus united the two houses of Lancaster and York. The early part of his reign was disturbed by the appearance of two successive pretenders to the throne; the one in the person of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, who attempted to counterfeit the Earl of Warwick; the other was one Perkin Warbeck, who made an attempt to counterfeit the Duke of York, who had been murdered in the tower by order of Richard III.

2. Simnel, after being proclaimed king of England and Ireland at Dublin, was made prisoner, but Henry, instead of condemning him to the scaffold, made him a servant in his kitchen. Warbeck, however, supported his cause for some time with better success; many of the nobility flocked to his standard, and he was acknowledged as sovereign of England by the kings of France and Scotland. After a variety of adventures, he surrendered himself to the king under a promise of pardon; but having been detected in a conspiracy with the Earl of Warwick, to effect their escape from the tower by murdering the lieutenant, he was hanged at Tyburn, and the earl was beheaded.

3. After a prosperous reign of about twenty-four years, Henry began to think of preparing for the last and trying scene of life; having ordered in his will that restitution should be made to all whom he might have injured, he died in the fifty-second year of his age. Henry, in many respects, may be considered, if not the most conspicuous, at least one of the most useful monarchs that occupied the throne of England from the days of Alfred. He was a prince equally distinguished for his wisdom in the cabinet and conduct in the

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CHAPTER VII.—1. What is said of Henry's accession? Whom did he marry? By what was his reign disturbed? Who were they?—2. What is said of Simnel? Of Warbeck? What was the fate of each?—3. After a reign of 24 years, of what did he begin to think? In many respects, what may Henry be considered?

field. He enacted many wise and salutary laws; encouraged industry and extended commerce; allowed the nobles to dispose of their estates, by which means their power was weakened, while property and equality were more widely diffused among all orders of the state. He raised England to a foremost place among the powers of Europe.

4. It was during the reign of Henry VII that the great Christopher Columbus discovered America. Accident alone prevented Henry from having a share in that celebrated enterprise. However, five years after the first voyage made by Columbus, the English monarch employed Sebastian Cabot, a native of Italy, who discovered Labrador, Newfoundland, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It was on this discovery that England founded her claim to North America. The greatest stain upon the character of Henry VII was his avarice; by his frugality and exactions, he accumulated immense wealth, and at his death he is said to have left in money the sum of £1,800,000, equal to £10,000,000 at the present day.

5. Henry VIII, son of the late monarch, succeeded to the throne under the most favorable auspices. His title to the crown was undisputed; the treasury well filled; the nation at peace; the country prosperous and happy. He possessed every quality that might endear him to the affections of his people; he was in the eighteenth year of his age, of a handsome person, polite in his deportment, frank and open in his disposition, and possessed an accomplished education. But we shall see in the sequel of his history that all these promising qualities, as he advanced in years, degenerated into the most detestable vices, and that Henry became one of the most cruel, brutal, and unprincipled tyrants that ever disgraced a throne.

6. By his prodigality and profusion he soon exhausted the treasury, which he found full when he ascended the throne. In the early part of his reign he declared war against Louis XII of France, invaded his dominions, and gained over him the battle of the Spurs (so called from the flight of the French cavalry), but failed to improve his good fortune, and after taking Tournay returned to England. About the same time the Scots, who had made an incursion into the northern

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What did he enact?—4. During his reign, what took place? What is the greatest stain upon his character?—5. Who succeeded? What did he possess? What shall we see in the sequel?—6. By his prodigality, what did he do? Against whom did he declare war?

part of his dominions, were defeated by the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field, where James IV, of Scotland, with the greater part of his nobility, was slain. The English king was also somewhat involved in that long and bloody contest between Charles V, of Germany, and Francis I, of France.

7. About this period Henry wrote a book against Luther, the famous Reformer, on which account he was styled by the Pope, "Defender of the Faith," a title which is retained by his successors to the present day. The most memorable transactions of Henry's reign were his matrimonial alliances, and the unhappy consequences that followed from them. His first wife was Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand of Spain, who had formerly been betrothed to Henry's brother Arthur, who died before the marriage was consummated.

8. Among her maids of honor the queen had Anne, the fair and beautiful daughter of Sir Thomas Bo'leyn. This accomplished lady, then in the bloom of youth, so captivated the fickle king's affections that he resolved to make her his wife. But his prior marriage with Catherine presented an insuperable obstacle. He had been contracted to her at an early period, through the influence of his father, and married shortly after he ascended the throne. But now, after living with this virtuous princess for eighteen years, Henry asserted that he began to feel conscientious scruples respecting his marriage, on account of her having been the wife of his brother, and applied to Clement VII for a divorce. The Sovereign Pontiff, however, unable to grant his request, held him for a time in suspense, hoping that delay might change the mind of the English monarch. In his prime minister, the celebrated Cardinal Wolsey, Henry expected to find an obsequious agent. But perceiving that the Cardinal did not meet his expectations, he resolved on his ruin, and ordered him to be arrested for high treason.

9. This extraordinary man was born at Ipswich, in Suffolk, of humble parentage; but gifted with superior talents and great abilities, he rose to the highest preferments in Church and State, having been elevated to the Archiepiscopal

Where was James of Scotland defeated and slain?—7. About this period, what did Henry do? What were the most memorable transactions of his reign? Who was his first wife?—8. Who was among her maids of honor? What is said of this accomplished lady? Of his prior marriage? After eighteen years, what did he begin to feel? What is said of the Pope? Who was his prime minister?—9. What is said of this extraordinary man? Of the fame of his talents?

See of York, then created Cardinal, and soon afterwards Lord High Chancellor of England, and Prime Minister. The fame of his talents, riches, and power was known throughout all Europe. On his way from York to London, to stand his trial, he stopped at Leicester Abbey, where he died after a short illness. A few moments before his death he uttered these remarkable words, in reference to the ingratitude of his sovereign: "If I had served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, He would not have abandoned me in my gray hairs." From the fate of this great man we may learn the instability of human greatness and the weakness of human power.

10. In the meantime, the headstrong king pushed forward the divorce with all his energy. The See of Canterbury having become vacant, he selected the famous Cranmer to fill it. In this unprincipled man Henry found a ready and willing instrument, not only to accomplish his present wish, but also to serve him in similar circumstances on a future occasion. Growing impatient of delay, and failing to obtain the Pope's consent for the divorce, he resolved to carry the measure without papal consent. For this purpose he assembled a court, over which Cranmer presided; this tribunal, after a short deliberation, pronounced Henry's marriage with Catherine invalid, and immediately proceeded to grant the divorce. The king, whose amorous affections would not permit him to delay, had been previously married to Anne Boleyn, even before he had received the decision of the court appointed to annul his marriage with Catherine.*

11. Henry now threw off all decent restraint; he abolished the papal jurisdiction in England, and caused himself, by act of Parliament, to be proclaimed head of the English Church. He arrogated to himself infallibility, and con-

* Pope Clement annulled the sentence given by Cranmer, as the cause was at the very time pending before himself, and excommunicated Henry and Anne unless they should separate before the end of September, or show cause why they claimed to be considered as husband and wife. The College of Cardinals subsequently pronounced a definitive sentence, declaring the proceedings against Catherine unjust, and ordering the King to take her back as his legitimate wife.—*Lingard.*

Before his death, what remarkable words did he utter?—10. Who was chosen to fill the See of Canterbury? Growing impatient, what did he resolve? For this purpose, what was done? What had the king done before receiving the decision of the court?—11. What did the king now do?

demned all, both Catholics and Protestants, to the stake who held opinions contrary to his own. The venerable Bishop Fisher, and the celebrated Sir Thomas More, then High Chancellor, were brought to the scaffold for refusing to acknowledge his supremacy. By an unjust act of Parliament the monasteries in England, to the number of six hundred, were suppressed, besides a much greater number of other religious institutions; their estates were converted to the use of the crown, and their revenues swept into the royal exchequer. Speaking of these institutions, Collier says: "To the abbeys we are indebted for most of our best historians, both Church and State; the youth there had their education with little charge to their parents; the nobility and gentry a creditable way of providing for their younger children."

12. Nor did Henry stop here. He even extended his rapacious hand from the dwellings of the living to the silent, sacred repose of the tomb. He plundered the rich shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, despoiled it of its ornaments of gold and silver, converting the whole to the royal treasury; then ordering the Saint to be indicted for high treason, committed against his sovereign, Henry II, he condemned him as a traitor. The holy martyr's bones were dug up and scattered to the wind.*

13. In less than three years after his late marriage he caused the new queen, Anne Boleyn, to be condemned and beheaded for real or imputed crimes, and on the day after her execution he married Jane Seymour, who died shortly after the birth of Prince Edward. His fourth wife was Anne of Cleves, from whom he obtained a divorce because he had been deceived in the estimate he had formed of her personal appearance. Thomas Cromwell, who was the son of a blacksmith in Putney, now created Earl of Essex, and Prime Minister, having been instrumental in bringing about the unhappy marriage, lost the favor of the king, and suffered on the scaffold. His fifth wife was Catherine Howard, who also ended her days on the scaffold, in a few months after her ex-

* For a full account of the Reformation in England, see Cobbett's *History of the Reformation.*

What is said of Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More? What was done by act of parliament? What does Mr. Collier say of these institutions?—12. What did he plunder? What did he order?—13. In less than three years, what happened? Who was his fourth wife? What is said of Thomas Cromwell? Who was his fifth wife?

altation to the throne. His last wife was Catherine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, whose life was saved by the death of the brutal king, which took place in the thirty-seventh year of his reign, and fifty-sixth of his age, A. D. 1547. And thus passed away one of the most despotic kings that ever disgraced a throne.

14. Henry VIII was succeeded by his son, Edward VI, in the tenth year of his age; the Duke of Somerset, his uncle, was appointed protector of the kingdom during his minority. The reign of this prince is distinguished by the important change in the religion of the realm. During the reign of his father the principles of the so-called Reformation had been introduced into the kingdom, and were now patronized and tolerated. By degrees the forms of the ancient Church were removed in order to make place for those of the new. A new liturgy in the English language and a book of Common Prayer were composed by Archbishop Cranmer. By the adoption of this liturgy, which was done by act of Parliament, all the rights and ceremonies of the Catholic Church were abolished, and a form of worship nearly resembling that of the present Church of England was established throughout the kingdom.

15. The young king, who possessed many amiable qualities, was suddenly carried off by death, in the sixteenth year of his age. Previously, however, he had been prevailed on, by the influence and intrigues of the Duke of Northumberland, the protector, to set aside his two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, and to leave the crown to Lady Jane Grey, who had married Lord Guilford Dudley, the son of the protector. Through the influence of her friends, Lady Jane Grey was immediately proclaimed on the death of Edward; but, after wearing the crown for nine days, she resigned the ensigns of royalty and retired again into a private station. After this unsuccessful attempt of Northumberland to snatch the crown from the brow of the rightful heir, Mary, the sister of Edward, quietly succeeded to the throne.

16. The Duke of Northumberland and two others were the only persons who suffered on the scaffold to atone for

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Who was his sixth wife? When did Henry die?—14. Who succeeded? For what is the reign of this prince distinguished? What was composed by Cranmer? By the adoption of this liturgy, what was effected?—15. What is said of the young king? To whom did he leave the crown? What is said of Lady Jane Grey?—16. Who suffered on the scaffold?

this conspiracy against their lawful sovereign. Lady Jane, who was considered a mere instrument in the hands of the duke to work out his ambitious designs, was pardoned by Queen Mary. But shortly after this a second conspiracy was entered into against Mary, at the head of which appeared the Duke of Suffolk and his brother; they were defeated, and atoned for their rebellion by the sacrifice of their lives.

17. Mary, who had been much blamed for her lenient conduct at the termination of the former conspiracy, was now induced, by the urgent persuasion of her ministers, to sign a warrant for the execution of Lady Jane Grey and her husband. On the fatal morning permission was given them to take leave of each other; the indulgence Jane refused, saying that they would shortly meet in Heaven. From the window of her cell she saw her husband led to execution and his bleeding corpse brought back to the chapel. When led forth, she mounted the scaffold with a firm step. She acknowledged, in a few words to the spectators, her fault in consenting to the treason of Northumberland, although she was not one of the original conspirators; and, after repeating a psalm, she laid her head upon the block. At the first stroke of the axe it was severed from the body.

18. Mary has been much censured for consenting to the execution of this unfortunate lady. It is true that her life had been spared as a pledge for the loyalty of the house of Suffolk; that pledge had been forfeited by the late rebellion of the duke; but still "it would have been to the honor of Mary," as Dr. Lingard observes, "to have overlooked the provocation, and refused to visit on the daughter the guilt of the father." Mary, in the second year of her reign, married Philip II, of Spain, a measure unpopular at the time, and productive of much unhappiness to herself; and towards the close of her reign the French took Calais, which had remained in possession of the English for upwards of two hundred and ten years. This event hastened her death. Mary appears never to have recovered from the stroke, and was often heard to say that the word Calais was written on her heart. She died in the forty-sixth year of her age, after a reign of six years, A. D. 1558.

What was again entered into against Mary?—17. What was Mary now induced to do? On the fatal morning, what is said of her? When brought forth, what did she do?—18. For what has Mary been censured? What does Dr. Lingard observe? Whom did she marry? What place did the French take? When did she die?

19. The heaviest charge against the memory of this queen is her persecution of the Reformers.* It may be remarked, not, however, in vindication of her acts, but as an apology for her conduct, that she lived at a time when the principles of religious toleration were not understood or practised by either Catholics or Protestants; when the extirpation of erroneous doctrines was inculcated as a duty by the leaders of nearly every religious party. It was the misfortunate, rather than the fault of Mary, that she was not more enlightened than the wisest of her contemporaries. With the exception of this severity, she is regarded, even by many of those writers who differed from her in belief, as a queen possessed of many amiable qualities; they have borne honorable testimony to her virtues; have allotted to her the praise of piety and clemency, of compassion for the poor and liberality to the distressed. "The queen's private life," says Collier, "was all along strict and unblemished. The other world was always uppermost with her. She valued her conscience above her crown. She was not of a vindictive or implacable spirit."

20. As Mary had always remained firm in the belief and practise of the Catholic Faith, one of her first measures was to restore the ancient religion of the kingdom, the public exercise of which had been nearly banished during the reign of her brother.

21. Upon the death of Mary, her sister Elizabeth ascended the throne. Elizabeth, during the reign of her sister, seems outwardly to have been a Catholic, but shortly after her accession she openly avowed herself the protectress of the Reformers, established Protestantism as the religion of the realm, assumed the title of supreme head of the English Church, and revived all the penal statutes against non-conformists, to which were added many others of the most cruel and oppressive nature. It was made high treason to deny the queen's supremacy, or acknowledge the jurisdiction of the See of Rome within her dominions, or to absolve, persuade, or withdraw any one from the Protestant to the Catholic Church.

* The principal sufferers were Cranmer, Latimer, Ridley and Hooper.

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19. What is the foulest blot upon her memory? What might be remarked? With this exception, how is she regarded? What does Collier say of her?—20. What was one of her first measures?—21. On the death of Mary, who ascended the throne? What is said of Elizabeth? What did she assume and revive? What was made high treason?

22. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, the granddaughter of Henry VII, was the next heir to the English throne. This fact did not fail to excite the fears and the jealousy of Elizabeth, who never ceased in her resentment until she brought her unhappy cousin to a premature and tragical end. The young Queen of Scotland had been renowned throughout Europe for her beauty and accomplishments. She had been educated at the French court, and married to Francis II, who died shortly after that event; Mary then returned to her own dominions. After a strange succession of events, which come more properly under the head of Scotland, the Scottish queen was compelled to quit her kingdom and take refuge in England, where she was detained in captivity for nearly twenty years, and finally put to death by order of her cousin Elizabeth.

23. In 1588, Philip of Spain projected an invasion of England, to avenge the queen's interference with his subjects in the Netherlands, who had revolted against his authority. For this purpose he fitted out the Invincible Arma'da, which consisted of one hundred and fifty ships, carrying three thousand pieces of cannon and twenty-seven thousand men. It entered the English channel in the form of a crescent, and extended to the distance of seven miles. It was met by the English fleet, under the command of Lord Admiral Howard, aided by Drake, Hawkins, Fro'bisher, and Ral'eigh. Being gradually weakened and dispersed by a violent storm, the Invincible Armada was completely overthrown; only one-third of the vessels, with six thousand men, returned to Spain.

24. In the administration of the government, Elizabeth was assisted by many eminent statesmen; among whom were Sir Nicholas Bacon, Burleigh, and Walsingham. But her chief favorites were men of abandoned character. Of these, in the early part of her reign, was the Earl of Leicester; and, after his death, the Earl of Essex seemed to hold the first place in the queen's affections. Elizabeth and Essex had various quarrels and reconciliations; at last, unable to restrain the impetuosity of his temper, he broke out in open

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22. Who was the next heir to the throne? What is said of the young queen? After a succession of events, what took place?—23. In 1588, what was done? For this purpose, what did he fit out? Who commanded the English fleet? What was the fate of the Armada?—24. Who were some of her eminent statesmen? Who were her favorites?

rebellion against her, for which he atoned by his death on the scaffold.

25. After the death of Essex the health of the queen visibly declined. At length she fell into a profound melancholy, which nothing could alleviate, and terminated her life in sorrow and gloom. All the splendor of royalty faded from her view; the time was come, to use her own expression, when "men would turn from the setting to worship the rising sun." She expired in the seventieth year of her age, and in the forty-fifth of her reign.

26. Elizabeth, doubtless, possessed eminent abilities as a sovereign, and was distinguished for her talents in directing public affairs. But in principle she was despotic, jealous, cruel, and revengeful; overbearing to her ministers in council; imperious to her servants in the palace; and in her conversation often grossly profane. Her private character is even less to be admired. She was a shameless woman—the mere sport of vice, vanity, and passion. She possessed none of those mild and graceful qualities that adorn the female character. Her reign, however, was distinguished for men of genius and learning; among whom Francis Bacon, Shakespeare, and Spenser were the most distinguished. The custom of smoking tobacco was introduced by Sir Walter Raleigh; and at this period potatoes were also brought to England from America.

CHAPTER VIII

STUART FAMILY: JAMES I; CHARLES I; THE COMMONWEALTH; CROMWELL; CHARLES II; JAMES II; WILLIAM AND MARY; ANNE.—FROM A. D. 1603 TO 1714.

ELIZABETH shortly before her death nominated as her successor the son of the unhappy Mary Stuart, James VI, of Scotland, who was the rightful heir by descent. On ascending the English throne he took the title of James I, and thus were the crowns of the two kingdoms united. Short-

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25. At length into what did she fall? What expression did she make use of? When did she expire?—26. What did Elizabeth possess? What was she in principle? Of what did she possess few? By what was her reign distinguished? What was introduced by Raleigh?

CHAPTER VIII.—1. Who succeeded Elizabeth?

ly after his arrival in England, a conspiracy was formed against him in favor of his cousin, Arabella Stuart. It was prematurely discovered, and Sir Walter Raleigh, under a charge of being concerned in the plot, was sentenced to death; this was carried into execution after he had languished in prison, with little intermission, for fifteen years.

2. Another conspiracy followed, of a more serious nature. This was the famous Gunpowder Plot, which was the design of a few daring adventurers to blow up the Parliament House, and involve in one common ruin the king, lords and commons. It was fortunately discovered on the eve of its accomplishment, and one of the leaders, Guy Fawkes, was taken, with matches in his pocket for firing the magazine.

3. It was the misfortune of James to be attached to unworthy favorites, such as the Earl of Somerset and the Duke of Buckingham, men whose only merits were their personal appearance and superficial accomplishments. During the reign of Mary the Puritans made their first appearance in England, and during the last reign their number had greatly increased. At the accession of James, who had been educated a Presbyterian, they flattered themselves that their views would meet the royal approbation. Being disappointed in their expectations, some of their number sought an asylum from restraint in matters of religion in the wilds of America, and formed settlements on the shores of New England.

4. In 1625, the king was seized with an illness which terminated his life, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-second of his reign over England. James possessed many virtues, but few free from the contagion of the neighboring vices. His generosity bordered on profusion; his learning on pedantry; his friendship on a puerile fondness. His leading passion seems to have been a love of arbitrary power. The divine right of kings to govern without control was with him a favorite theme. Being naturally averse to war, his reign was peaceful. He was fond of flattery, which was dealt out to him with an unsparing hand by his bishops and courtiers, who regarded him as the British Solomon, yet by others he

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After his arrival in England, what was formed against him? What is said of Raleigh?—2. What other conspiracy followed? Who was one of the leaders?—3. What was the misfortune of James? During the reign of Mary, who made their appearance in England? At the accession of James, who did they expect? Where did many of them go? 4. When did the king die? What was his character?

seems to have merited the appellation given him by the Duke of Sully—the "wisest fool in Christendom."

5. Under many apparent advantages Charles I succeeded his father on the throne. He had scarcely assumed the reins of government before he proved that he had imbibed the arbitrary principles of his father; he patronized the same unworthy favorite, Buckingham, who still retained all his former influence and authority. He married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV, of France, a princess distinguished for her devotedness to her husband throughout all the eventful scenes of his life.

6. The refusal of the Parliament to grant adequate supplies to enable him to carry on a war against France and Spain, led Charles to adopt a resolution of ruling without their aid, and of levying money without their authority. This manifestation of a tyrannical disposition on the part of the king first roused the Parliament against him. Charles could not brook the denial of supplies, dissolved the Parliament, and issued a warrant for borrowing money of his subjects.

7. After an unsuccessful expedition against France, Buckingham, who had long since rendered himself detestable to the Parliament, was assassinated by one Felton. The death of his favorite, however, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings. A new Parliament was formed, as uncompromising as the former, and exhibited a spirit of determined opposition. A petition of rights was passed by both houses; this declared the illegality of raising money without their sanction, or of enforcing loans from the subjects, and annulled all taxes imposed without the consent of Parliament.

8. At this period the current of public feeling seemed to run strongly in favor of Puritanism, which had been on the ascendency since the accession of James to the English throne. Charles next proceeded to a very injudicious and unpopular measure, which was to enforce, throughout his kingdom, a strict conformity to the liturgy of the Church of England; and, through the indiscreet zeal of Archbishop

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What was he called by the Duke of Sully?—5. Who succeeded? Whom did he patronize? Whom did he marry?—6. What led him to adopt the resolution of ruling without the aid of parliament? What did he dissolve? 7. What was the end of Buckingham? What was a new parliament formed for? What was passed?—8. At this period, how did the current of public opinion seem to run? To what measure did Charles now proceed?

Laud, the measure was rigidly enforced. Not satisfied with attempting to enforce the liturgy in England, the king endeavored to impose the new liturgy upon the national Church of Scotland. Here the measure met with the most determined opposition, and excited the strongest sensations among all ranks of people. An association was entered into, called the National Covenant, by which the parties bound themselves by oath to resist all religious innovations.

9. After eleven years of intermission, the king found himself obliged again to convoke the Parliament; but that body, instead of listening to his demand for supplies, began by presenting the public grievances, complaining of the infringement of the privileges of Parliament, illegal taxation, and the violence done to the cause of religion. Charles, finding that nothing could be obtained from an assembly determined to oppose all his measures, dissolved the Parliament, but shortly afterwards convoked another.

10. One of the first acts of the new Parliament was the impeachment of the Earl of Strafford, the minister of state, and Archbishop Laud, on a charge of endeavoring to subvert the constitution and to introduce arbitrary power. Strafford was arraigned for trial before the House of Lords; his defence on this occasion is said to have been one of the most pathetic pieces of eloquence ever delivered; but nothing could save him from the vengeance of his enemies. He was found guilty, sentenced, and beheaded. This was a severe blow to the king, who lost in the earl a faithful minister and the firmest supporter of the prerogatives of the crown.

11. The contention between the king and the Parliament from this period began to wear a more alarming aspect, until at last both parties resolved to decide the issue of the contest by an appeal to the sword. And thus the standard of civil war was unfurled during the year 1642.

The first serious overthrow of the royal forces happened at Marston Moor, where Charles and Prince Rupert were defeated by Oliver Cromwell, who commanded the parliamentary forces. After this victory Archbishop Laud, who had re-

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How was he met in Scotland?—9. After eleven years, what did the king do? What is said of this body? What course did the king pursue?—10. What was one of the first acts of the new parliament? What is said of Strafford's defence? 11. What did the contention between the king and the parliament begin to wear? When did the war break out? Where was the first overthrow? After this victory, what is said of Archbishop Laud?

mained a prisoner in the tower since the impeachment of Strafford, was brought to trial, condemned, and beheaded; and on the same day the liturgy of the Church of England was abolished, and the rigid principles of Puritanism established in its place.

12. After the war had raged about five years, the Royalists were entirely defeated in the battle of Naseby, and Charles very imprudently surrendered himself to the Scottish army, by which he was basely delivered into the hands of the Parliament for the sum of £400,000. In the House of Commons a vote was passed declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his Parliament, and instituted a high court of justice, composed of one hundred and thirty-three members, to try Charles for that offence. This measure was rejected by the House of Lords, but the Commons, supported by the parliamentary army, disregarded their dissent and issued an order for the trial. The king, having been arraigned before this self-created tribunal, refused to answer any questions put to him, disavowed its legality, and denied its jurisdiction; but all was of no avail; his enemies thirsted for his blood, and nothing less than his death would satisfy their vengeance. The trial proceeded. Charles was found guilty, and the sentence of death was pronounced against him as a tyrant, traitor, and murderer.

13. The unfortunate monarch bore the sentence of death, and all the unworthy treatment he received at his trial, with a degree of fortitude that excited the admiration of even his enemies. Permission was given him to see his children. He took his last leave of them with tenderness and affection, and spent the short respite that was allowed him in private devotions with Juxton, Bishop of London, in order to prepare himself for the trying scene through which he was about to pass. On reaching the scaffold, which was erected before Whitehall, he surveyed the preparations with a countenance undismayed, addressed a few words to those who were near him, declared his innocence, and freely forgave his enemies. He then laid his head upon the block, and at the first stroke of the axe it was severed from the body.

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12. Where were the royalists defeated, and what did Charles do? What was done in the House of Commons? What did they refuse? What was the issue of the trial?—13. How did he bear the sentence? How did he take leave of his children? On reaching the scaffold, what did he do? When was he executed?

Such was the unhappy end of Charles I, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign.

14. If we take a survey of this period, we shall find much to admire and much to condemn. That Charles had committed errors in the administration of the government is obvious to all; but that these errors were such as to sanction the proceedings against him, few are willing to admit. That many of those who first opposed his arbitrary measures were actuated by a sense of justice and a desire of maintaining the liberties of the people may be admitted; while the result will show that there were others who only aimed at hurling the monarch from his throne, that they themselves might exercise his arbitrary principles. The House of Commons ordered a new Great Seal to be made, bearing the words, "On the first year of freedom, by God's blessing, restored, 1648." The king's statue in the exchange was thrown down, and on the pedestal was inscribed, *Exit tyrannus, Regum ultimus*—the tyrant is gone, the last of the kings.

15. After the death of the king, the Commons proceeded to abolish the monarchy and the House of Lords, and to establish a republican form of government. A proclamation was issued, stating that the supreme authority of the nation was vested in the representatives of the people, and it should be high treason to give to any person the title of king without the consent of Parliament. Nothing, perhaps, in the history of this period is more remarkable than the sudden revolutions in religion. After the execution of Laud, we have seen that the Anglican Church was abolished and Presbyterianism established in its stead. We are now to behold the Presbyterian interest decline in favor of the Independents, who began to gain the ascendency. Through the management of Cromwell, the power which had been vested in the king was transferred to the army, and measures were taken to exclude the Presbyterians from Parliament. In this manner the Presbyterians, who had been instrumental in subverting the Church and the throne, fell victims to the power of the army, through whose agency they had accomplished their designs.

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14. What is said of Charles and of those engaged in his death? What did the House of Commons order?—15. After the king's death, what did the Commons do? What was issued? What are we now to behold? What was effected through the influence of Cromwell?

16. The people of Ireland and Scotland were still faithful in their allegiance to the fallen monarch, and unfurled the royal standard in favor of his son, Charles II. Cromwell, having procured for himself the appointment of commander-in-chief of the forces directed against Ireland, landed at Dublin; thence he proceeded to Drogheda, which was well fortified, and occupied by three thousand men, under the command of Sir Arthur Aston. The place was finally taken by a furious assault, and only one of all the garrison escaped the barbarous massacre that followed. After this the country submitted to his authority.

17. He next marched into Scotland at the head of sixteen thousand men, defeated the Royalists at Dunbar, overthrew them again in the desperate battle of Worcester, and completely established the sovereignty of the Parliament. After this battle young Charles, having with difficulty escaped from the scene of defeat, assumed the disguise of a peasant, and travelled in the least frequented roads, pursuing his journey by night, and frequently passing the day in obscure cottages. On one occasion he passed the day concealed in the branches of a large oak; while in this situation he heard and saw his pursuers passing beneath him. After many adventures he effected his escape to France.

18. At this period the republic astonished all Europe by the brilliancy of its naval achievements. The famous Navigation Act, which prohibited any State from carrying into England any commodity that was not the growth, or manufacture of the country to which the vessel belonged, produced a war with Holland, in which Admiral Blake obtained a great naval victory over the celebrated Dutch commanders, Van Tromp and De Ruyter.

19. The Parliament, which had been in session for eleven years, and was known by the name of the Long Parliament, attempted to reduce the army, with a view to diminishing the power of Cromwell, who, perceiving their design, and being secure of the attachment of the soldiery, resolved to wrest the sovereign power from their hands. An unfavor-

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16. What is said of the people of Ireland and Scotland? Of Cromwell? After taking Drogheda, what followed?—17. Where did he next march? After this battle, what is said of young Charles? On one occasion, how did he pass the day?—18. At this period, what is said of the republic? What did the navigation act produce? 19. What is said of the parliament?

able reply being returned to a petition which he sent to Parliament, he rose in a violent rage, and taking with him a strong guard, entered the house with marks of indignation in his countenance, and after loading the members with reproaches, he cried out, "For shame; get hence; give place to honest men. I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament; the Lord has done with you." Having turned them out, he ordered the doors to be locked, and, taking the keys, departed to his residence at Whitehall.

20. This fanatical despot then called a new Parliament in quite a novel form. He took the census of the Congregational churches in the several counties, and reported the names of such persons as were deemed qualified to fill the high office; of these, one hundred and sixty-three representatives were selected, and on the day appointed presented themselves, to the number of one hundred and twenty, in the council chamber at Whitehall. This body, composed of men imbued with all the wild fanaticism of the time, received the name of the Barebones Parliament, from one of its leading members, who bore the singular name of Praise-God Barebones. The Barebones Parliament, after a session of a few months, resigned all their authority into the hands of Cromwell, a measure which he had probably intended or expected. The Parliament immediately dissolved, and the officers of the army, by their sole authority, declared Cromwell Protector of the Commonwealth of England.

21. The Protector entered on the duties of his new office with energy and ability. He was assisted by a council of twenty-one members; declined the title of majesty, but received that of highness; refused the title of king, although he possessed the power and assumed all the ensigns of royalty. His administration, however, advanced the military glory of England. Abroad his fleets and armies were victorious; he obliged the Dutch to sue for peace and humbled the power of Spain.

22. Having attained the height of his ambition, Cromwell found that his situation was by no means enviable. The nation despised the man, who, under the pretence of espous-

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An unfavorable reply being returned to a petition, what did Cromwell do? What did he cry out?—20. How did he call a new parliament? What name did this body receive? What did the officers of the army do?—21. What is said of the Protector? What title did he receive? What is said of his administration?—22. What did Cromwell find? What did the nation do?

ing the liberties of the people, had aspired to unlimited power. He was aware of this hatred, and the dread of assassination caused him to wear armor under his clothes. His health began to decline, and he was at length seized with a fever, which terminated his life, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, A. D. 1658.

23. His son, Richard Cromwell, who inherited neither the ability nor the ambition of his father, was proclaimed Protector in his place; but, after holding the office for a few months, resigned the title and retired to private life. A military despotism for some time succeeded, the army directing the affairs of government at will. At length General Monk, who then commanded an army in Scotland, marched into England, crushed the contending factions, and caused a new Parliament to be assembled. After the meeting of the members, some time intervened before the king was mentioned. At length they were informed that a messenger was at the door with a letter from the king to the Commons. The letter was received and read, the Parliament assented to the proposals, and in this manner Charles II was restored to his kingdom and to the throne of his father, A. D. 1660.

24. The whole demeanor of Charles at the commencement of his reign was such as to inspire the affection of his subjects, and to render him generally popular. He was in the thirtieth year of his age, possessing a handsome exterior, familiar and affable in his manners; but at the same time much inclined to indolence and pleasure. An act of general indemnity was passed, except to those immediately concerned in the late king's death. Accordingly, Harrison, Scott, Jones, and several others engaged in the trial of his father, were executed. But the vengeance of the king passed from the living to the dead. The bodies of Cromwell, Bradshaw, and Ireton were dug up from their graves, and, after hanging for some time, were cut down and buried under the gallows.

25. Charles was soon distinguished for the same arbitrary principles which seemed hereditary in the family of the

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When did he die?—23. Who was proclaimed Protector in his place? What did he do? What succeeded? What is said of General Monk? Of what was parliament informed? How was the letter received?—24. What was the demeanor of Charles? What act was passed? Who were executed? What was done with the bodies of Cromwell, etc.?—25. For what was Charles soon distinguished?

Stuarts. The doctrine of passive obedience and non-resistance now came into use; from this originated the distinguishing epithets of Whigs and Tories. The former opposed the pretensions of the crown, the latter were its advocates. A new Parliament was assembled, consisting chiefly of High Churchmen and loyalists; the Anglican Church was restored, and an act of conformity in religion was passed.

26. The next year Charles married Catherine of Portugal, and with her obtained a dowry of five hundred thousand pounds, a sum which greatly relieved his present necessities. But his prodigality kept him always in need. He bartered away Dunkirk, which had been acquired by Cromwell, to the French for four hundred thousand pounds sterling, which was soon squandered on his pleasures. He soon after this declared war against the Dutch, which continued to rage for several years, until at length a treaty of peace was concluded, by which Holland ceded the colony of New York to the English.

27. During this war London was afflicted with a plague, which carried off ninety thousand of its inhabitants; and in the following year a fire took place by which thirteen thousand houses were laid in ruins. To perpetuate the calamity, a monument was erected, bearing an inscription, falsely charging that the Catholics were the authors of the conflagration. This lying inscription was erased in the early part of the present century, by order of the British Parliament.

28. Towards the close of the reign of Charles, the Whigs, having the ascendency in Parliament, distinguished themselves by their hostility to the Catholics, and insisted on the king's assent to a bill for the exclusion of his brother, the Duke of York, who had lately embraced the Catholic Faith. To this highly unjust and unnatural measure Charles could not consent, and in consequence dissolved two successive Parliaments. A pretended plot was discovered by the infamous Titus Oates (a man guilty of almost every crime in the catalogue of human vices), which occasioned the unjust execution of Lord Strafford and several other eminent

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What doctrine now came into use, and what epithets originated from it? What is said of the new parliament?—26. Whom did Charles marry? What did he barter away? What war was declared? How did it terminate?—27. By what was London visited? In the following year, what took place? To perpetuate the calamity, what was erected?—28. How did the Whigs distinguish themselves? What pretended plot was discovered?

Catholics. Another conspiracy in favor of reform was shortly after detected; this was the Rye-house plot, in which Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney were accused of being concerned. They were brought to trial, found guilty, and beheaded.

29. The king himself did not long survive these acts of severity; being seized with an apoplexy, he died in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign. Shortly before his death, he sent for a Catholic clergyman, and received the Sacraments from his hands. During the reign of Charles, the famous act of *habeas corpus* was passed; by it persons were freed from arbitrary imprisonment. The most distinguished poets of this period were Milton, Waller, Cowley, Butler, Dryden, and Roscommon. A remarkable instance of longevity is mentioned in the case of Thomas Parr, a laboring man in Yorkshire, who had lived in ten reigns, and completed one hundred and sixty years.

30. As Charles had left no legitimate issue, his brother, the Duke of York, succeeded to the throne, under the title of James II, with every mark of public approbation, notwithstanding his open profession of the Catholic Faith. It is probable that James might have reigned in tranquillity, and have ended his days on the throne of his ancestors, had it not been for his own imprudence, and his unfortunate choice of ministers. The early part of his reign was disturbed by the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth, who aimed at seizing the crown. Encouraged by the Prince of Orange and Sunderland, the perfidious minister of James, the duke landed in England, caused himself to be proclaimed king, and unfurled his standard at Taunton. After wearing the empty title of royalty for a few weeks, he was defeated, taken prisoner, and atoned for his rebellion on the scaffold.

31. A special commission was issued to Jeffreys, the Lord Chief Justice, for the trial of the rebel prisoners. Jeffreys, in the execution of his commission, is represented as guilty of wanton cruelty; for although there was no doubt of the guilt of the accused, yet the number of those who suffered

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What other conspiracy was detected? Who were accused of being concerned in it?—29. How did the king die? What act was passed in his reign? Who were distinguished poets? What is said of Parr?—30. Who succeeded to the throne? By what was the early part of his reign disturbed? What was the fate of Monmouth? 31. To whom was a commission issued? How is Jeffreys represented?

made the acts of public justice assume the appearance of cruelty and revenge, while all the odium of these severities fell upon the king.

32. James, now finding himself firmly seated upon the throne, proceeded to a measure that did not fail to excite the disaffection of a great number of his subjects. As he had openly professed the Catholic Faith, it was his ardent wish to restore the ancient religion of the kingdom. By way of preparation for this important step, the king, on the 4th of April, 1687, in virtue of his prerogative, issued a proclamation, granting to all his subjects entire liberty to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences. This indulgent grant, so honorable to the sovereign, so desirable on the part of a free people, and so suitable to the mild spirit of Christianity, was joyfully received by the Catholics, and by many dissenters of all denominations; by others, it was loudly censured, as tending to overthrow the national Church established by law, which they still conceived necessary for its support.

33. Another proclamation, granting full liberty of conscience, followed during the April of 1688; this was ordered to be read in every church and chapel in the kingdom after the service had ended. This order occasioned considerable opposition, and six of the bishops, who resisted the mandate, were immediately committed to the tower and indicted for disobedience.

34. The contest with the bishops completed the king's unpopularity. His enemies, without being suspected, had prepared the kingdom for a general revolt; they secretly applied for aid to the Prince of Orange, the son-in-law of James, and offered him the crown as the reward of his services. On receiving this invitation, William, with the utmost haste, fitted out a fleet of five hundred sail, carrying four thousand men, and landed in England. In a few days he was joined by the greater part of the English army; and James found himself deserted, even by those who owed all to his bounty. Among others who left him in the hour of distress was his favorite daughter Anne, who secretly withdrew to join the

32. What is said of James? What was his wish? In 1687, what did he issue? How was this grant received?—33. In 1688, what followed? What did the order occasion?—34. What did his enemies do? To whom did they apply? On receiving the invitation, what did William do? In a few days, how did James find himself? Who left him, among others?

standard of the man who had invaded the dominions of her father, and was about to snatch the crown from his brow.

35. At the news of the ungrateful conduct of the daughter whom he tenderly loved, his constancy gave way, and in bitter anguish he exclaimed, "God, help me! my own children have forsaken me in my utmost need." Having previously sent his queen and infant son, the Prince of Wales, to the French court, he shortly after followed, leaving his kingdom in the power of his rival.

36. After the king's departure, a convention met, consisting of members of the House of Commons during the reign of Charles II, as those of James were deemed illegal. They declared that James, by quitting the kingdom, had deserted the people—although it was evident that the people had deserted him—and that the throne was vacant. They passed a bill excluding the Catholics from office, and settled the crown on the Prince of Orange and the princess, and their heirs; but the administration of the government was placed in the hands of the prince alone.

37. After some time spent in France, James resolved to make an effort to regain his crown, through the loyalty of the people of Ireland, who still adhered to his interest. Having arrived at Kinsale, he made a public entry into Dublin, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. In the year 1690 was fought the famous battle of the Boyne, between the forces of the king and those of his rival, William. The battle was maintained for some time with equal bravery on both sides; at length, owing to the pusillanimity of James, the scale of victory turned in favor of William. In Ireland, the war dragged on until the surrender of Limerick, in October, 1691.

38. James fled from the scene of defeat and escaped to France, where he remained a pensioner on the bounty of the French king. The exiled monarch passed the remainder of his days at Saint Germains, where he gained the esteem of all who knew him, for his exemplary piety and for his mildness and affability. He died in the sixty-eighth year of his age, A. D. 1701.

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35. At the news of this defection, what did he exclaim? Where did he send his queen and son?—36. After the king's departure, what was done? What did they declare? What did they pass? —37. After some time, what did James resolve? What took place in 1690? What did James exclaim? What was the issue of the battle? —38. What did James do? Where did he pass the remainder of his days? When did he die?

William of Orange was naturally of a feeble constitution, which he endeavored to repair by exercise. As he rode from Hampton Court to Kensington, his collar-bone was fractured by falling from his horse; this was followed by a fever, which terminated his life in the fifty-second year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign. His reign was memorable for the establishment of the Bank of England.

39. On the death of William, the crown devolved upon Anne, the second daughter of James II, who had married George, Prince of Denmark. On coming to the throne, she communicated to the Houses of Parliament her purpose of declaring war against France. In conjunction with Germany and Holland, war was accordingly declared. The Duke of Marlborough, one of the greatest generals of his age, was appointed commander-in-chief of the allied army. Prince Eugene commanded the imperial forces. After the power of Louis XIV had been considerably weakened by the several victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, gained by the allied armies, the war was terminated by the peace of Utrecht, in the year 1713.

40. The most memorable event of this reign was the union between England and Scotland, which destroyed the Scottish parliament, and included the two countries under the common title of Great Britain. It was during the reign of Anne that Gibraltar was taken by the English; it has remained in their possession to the present time. At this period party spirit was carried to extremes, and distracted the kingdom during the greater part of her reign. The queen's health had been for some time on the decline; at length she passed from the turmoil and splendor of the palace to the humble quietude of the tomb, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign, A. D. 1714.

This period has been so prolific in men of literary genius, that it has been styled the Augustan Age of English letters. Some of the most distinguished names are those of Pope, Swift, Addison, Parnell, Steele, Prior, and Gay.

What occasioned the death of William?—39. On whom did the crown now devolve? What war was immediately declared? Who was appointed commander-in-chief? What victories were gained? How was the war terminated?—40. What was the most memorable event of her reign? What was taken by the English? When did the queen die? What has this period been styled? What were some of the most distinguished names?

CHAPTER IX

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK: GEORGE I; GEORGE II; GEORGE III; GEORGE IV; WILLIAM IV.—FROM A. D. 1714 TO 1837.

ON the death of Anne, George I, elector of Hanover, succeeded to the throne, with general approbation. The features of his reign were generally pacific, and afford few events of importance in history. Upon assuming the reins of government, he attached himself to the Whig party, which had strenuously advocated his accession, and entered into violent measures against the late Tory ministry.

2. A committee of investigation was appointed to inspect the papers relative to the treaty with France, and Lord Bolingbroke, the Earl of Oxford, and the Earl of Mortimer, with several others of the Tory party, were impeached for high treason. These vindictive proceedings excited the indignation of the people, and the flame of rebellion broke out in Scotland. The Earl of Mar, at the head of ten thousand men, proclaimed the son of James II the lawful monarch of Great Britain. The rebellion, however, was soon crushed, and the most exemplary severity exercised against the leaders. Various lords and earls were impeached, and suffered death on the scaffold; many others of inferior rank were executed, and about a thousand transported to North America.

3. At this period a plan, called the South Sea scheme, was devised for lessening the national debt by lowering the interest; the measure, however, gave a severe blow to public credit, and ruined the fortunes of thousands.

George died suddenly of a paralytic disorder, while on a visit to his electoral dominions of Hanover, in the sixty-eight year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign, A. D. 1727.

4. George II, who succeeded his father in the forty-fourth year of his age, was a prince possessed of considerable ability, of a violent temper, and distinguished in military exercise.

CHAPTER IX.—1. Who succeeded to the throne? What is said of his reign?—2. What committee was appointed? Who were impeached? What did these proceedings excite? What is said of the rebellion?—3. At this time what was devised? When did George die? 4. Who succeeded?

Like his father, he inclined to the Whig party, and was particularly biased in favor of his continental dominions, on account of which he involved England in an expensive war. The most prominent person in the administration during the reign of George was Sir Robert Walpole, a man of eminent talents, but accused by many as guilty of a system of corruption and venality which he practised while in office.

5. The military operations during this reign were extensive, and the British arms were generally triumphant. England espoused the cause of Maria Teresa, of Austria, against Charles, of Bavaria, and Louis XV, of France. In this contest, called the war of the Austrian Succession, the principal states of Europe were involved. Various was the success that attended the contending powers. The English, with their allies, under the command of George II, in person, defeated the French in the celebrated battle of Dettingen, and the French, in their turn, under Marshal Saxe, gained the victory at Fontenoy. After war had raged for some time, peace was again restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and the claim of Maria Teresa to the throne was confirmed.

6. During the absence of the king on the continent, Charles Edward, the eldest son of James II, assisted by Louis XV, of France, made a last and desperate effort to regain the throne of his ancestors. He landed in Scotland, and placing himself at the head of an army, defeated the royalists in the battles of Preston-Pans and Falkirk; but on the 16th of April, 1746, was fought the famous battle of Culloden, in which Charles was signally defeated by the royal forces under the Duke of Cumberland. By this battle the Stuart pretensions to the crown of England were forever extinguished. The prince, after a series of adventures, escaped to France.

7. Towards the close of this reign, the war was again renewed between England and France, on account of the encroachments of the latter on the British colonies in America. The war was finally terminated by the surrender of all Canada on the part of France. It was during this war that the heroic General Wolfe perished in the moment of

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To what was he inclined? Who was the most prominent person in the administration?—5. What is said of the military operations of this reign? What did England espouse? What was this war called? How was peace restored?—6. During the absence of the king, what took place? Where did he land? What took place in 1746? 7. Towards the close of his reign, what took place? How was it terminated? During this war, what happened?

achieving the capture of the city of Quebec. During their operations in America, the British also carried on a war in India.

8. George II died in 1760, at the palace of Kensington, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign. His reign was distinguished for many eminent writers and men of genius; among the poets may be mentioned Young, Akenside, and Gray.

9. George III, the grandson of the late monarch, succeeded to the throne in the eighteenth year of his age. He commenced his reign at a favorable period, when the national arms were everywhere triumphant, and the administration of the government was directed by the genius of William Pitt (Lord Chatham), one of the most eminent and popular ministers in the annals of the nation. It was at this period that an oppressive and unjust course of policy was adopted by the British government towards her American colonies. Against these measures Pitt exerted all the powers of his eloquence, but in vain. The colonies were finally driven into hostilities with the mother country, and Great Britain, after a long and expensive war, was compelled to acknowledge their independence.*

10. The other important events of this reign were the extension of the British possessions in India, where Hyder Ali and his son distinguished themselves by their opposition to the encroachments of the English; the Irish rebellion, which took place in 1798, and the subsequent union of Ireland† with Great Britain, and the long and bloody conflicts which grew out of the French Revolution.

11. Some of the principal achievements of the British during this period were the famous naval victories of the Nile and Trafalgar, by Lord Nelson, and those of Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, and Waterloo, by Wellington. George died on the 29th of January, 1820, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, after a reign of sixty years, the longest but one in English history. During the last ten years

* See "United States." † See "Ireland."

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8. When did George II die? Among the poets, who stand pre-eminent?—9. Who succeeded to the throne? How did he commence his reign? What took place at this period? What is said of Pitt? —10. What were the other important events of this reign? 11. What were some of the achievements of the British during this period? When did George die?

of his life he was afflicted with insanity, which disqualified him for all public business, and his son, the Prince of Wales, acted as regent. The subversion of his intellect is supposed to have been brought on by the death of his favorite, Amelia, aided by advanced age and the toils of state. His natural endowments were not great, although he was a good monarch and much beloved by his subjects.

12. George IV, who succeeded to the throne, was a prince in some respects able and accomplished. The early part of his life, however, was distinguished for unrestrained dissipation and prodigality. His reign was generally peaceful and prosperous. Some of the most important events were the war in India, by which the English gained a great part of the Burman Empire; the celebrated trial of his queen in the House of Lords for misconduct; the interposition in favor of the Greeks in their struggle for independence, during which was gained the celebrated naval victory at Navarino, over the Turks, by the united fleets of England, France, and Russia; and also the passage of the Catholic Relief bill, by which the disabilities of the long and unjustly oppressed Catholics in Great Britain and Ireland were removed, and by which they were placed on an equal footing with members of the established church, with three exceptions: exclusion from the throne, and from the offices of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, Lord Chancellor of that kingdom, and of England.

13. George IV died at Windsor, on the 26th of June, 1830, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the eleventh of his reign, and was succeeded on the throne by his brother, William, Duke of Clarence, under the title of William IV. His short reign was not distinguished for any important event; and at his death, in 1837, he was succeeded by the Princess Victoria, the only child of the Duke of Kent.

What is said of the last ten years of his life? Of his abilities? —12. Who succeeded to the throne? What were some of the most important events of his reign? What are the three exceptions to the Catholic Relief bill?—13. When did George die, and by whom succeeded? At his death who succeeded?

CHAPTER X

THE REIGN OF QUEEN VICTORIA—A. D. 1837 TO 1908

ITS CHANGES — AGITATIONS — WARS — LITERATURE — INVENTIONS—AND GENERAL PROGRESS.

QUEEN VICTORIA, at the age of eighteen, was crowned in June, 1838; and about a year and a half later, she was married to her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg. Her reign, which was eventful, has been the longest in English history.

2. The agitation for the repeal of the union of Ireland to Great Britain had been going on for some time. At last a crisis came, and the progress of the movement was arrested. "The year 1843," said O'Connell, "is and shall be the great Repeal year." He organized huge meetings in Ireland; vast multitudes hung on his words. But the government grew alarmed, had the great agitator arrested, tried, and condemned to fine and imprisonment. On O'Connell's appeal, however, to the House of Lords, the sentence was reversed, and he was set at liberty.

3. It was toward the middle of the reign of William IV that a memorable movement began in the Church of England. The University of Oxford was the centre of this religious movement, and its leading spirit, John Henry Newman.* This great man became a Catholic in 1845, and soon he was followed by a host of Protestant scholars, lords, and ladies.† Since that time the ancient Faith has been rapidly gaining ground in England, especially among the higher and better educated classes.

* Afterwards Cardinal Newman.

† During the last fifty odd years over two thousand graduates of Oxford and Cambridge and persons of rank in England have joined the Catholic Church. Among them are Cardinal Manning, subsequently Archbishop of Westminster, and the Marquis of Ripon, who was Governor-General of India.

CHAPTER X.—1. When was Victoria crowned? Whom did she marry?—2. What is said of the repeal of the union and O'Connell?—3. What religious movement marks this reign? Who was its leading spirit? When did Newman become a Catholic, and what was the result?

4. The agitation on the subject of free trade led, in 1846, to the repeal of the Corn laws, through the persevering efforts of Cobden and Bright. Grain of every kind was allowed to enter England free of duty. The famine in Ireland began with the partial loss of the potato crop in 1845. The misery increased fearfully in 1846 and 1847. Ireland starved, and over two millions of her brave but unhappy people died or fled to foreign lands. The Irish famine is the gloomiest chapter in the annals of this reign.

5. In 1850, Pius IX restored the Catholic Hierarchy of England, and placed the learned Cardinal Wiseman at its head, appointing him Archbishop of Westminster. But the fanaticism of the whole country was aroused, and the supposed aggression of the Pope was fiercely denounced. During this period of stormy excitement a ridiculous bill—known as the Ecclesiastical Titles bill—passed both houses of Parliament and received the royal signature. It forbade Catholic Bishops to take titles from the Sees they held in Great Britain and Ireland. But it was never put in force. It troubled nobody, and many years after, in 1871, it was quietly repealed.

6. We have already referred to the causes that led to the Crimean war.* France and England combined to aid Turkey and to punish the ambitious designs of Russia. War was declared in the summer of 1854. In September, twenty-seven thousand English, thirty thousand French, and seven thousand Turks landed on the shores of the Crimea. The first battle was fought on the banks of the little river Alma. On the heights that fringed the river, the Russians in great strength had taken up a splendid position, under the command of Prince Mentschikoff. The allies, under Lord Raglan, and Marshal St. Armand, made the attack with headlong courage, and at last carried all before them. It was an heroic scramble. The Russians fled. Other engagements followed at Balaklava and Inkermann. Reinforcements arrived, and the siege of the Russian stronghold, Sebastopol, was commenced. After a long and obstinate defence, the city

* See "France," chap. ix.

4 What laws were repealed in 1846? When and how did the Irish famine begin? What was the unhappy result of this famine?—5. What did Pius IX do in 1850? Was England pleased at this step? What is said of the Ecclesiastical Titles bill?—6. When did France and England declare war against Russia? Describe the battle of Alma. What city stood a long and obstinate siege?

fell in September, 1855—not, however, before the Russians had made it another Moscow. Peace was restored by the treaty of Paris, March, 1856. Russia was humbled, Turkey allowed to live a little longer, and France and England had the barren honor of a few victories.

7. British rule in India received a rude shock in 1857. The army by which England maintained her authority over India was composed mainly of natives, to which the name of Se'poys was given. Dissatisfaction spread among these dusky troops, and soon ripened into excitement, open revolt, and scenes of terrible bloodshed. At Meerut the native regiments murdered their officers and many European women and children. The same horrors were perpetrated at Delhi, and the deposed native king raised his standard over the ancient palace of the Mogul. In a short time the Sepoys mutinied at twenty-two different stations, and slaughtered every European that came in their way. But the barbarous massacre of European women and children at Cawnpore capped the climax of appalling horrors. After much hard fighting, however, the British troops overran the revolted districts. Delhi was besieged and retaken; but the arms of England were stained by a dreadful and indiscriminate massacre. The streets of the city were red with streams of blood. The rebellion was beaten to the ground by a policy of merciless retribution. Mutinied Sepoys, when captured, were hung in squads upon any convenient tree, or were fastened to the muzzles of cannon, whose discharge shattered their bodies into fragments!

8. In 1857, France and England, after enduring much provocation, declared war against China. The frightened Emperor of that mysterious country soon hastened to sign a treaty of peace, which, however, with bad faith, he barely kept till the allies were out of sight. He again persecuted the Christians. But France and England sent another expedition to China. The capital was taken in 1860, and a new and more advantageous treaty finally concluded. The humbled Chinaman was glad to grant all that was asked.

When did it fall, and what is said of how the Russians left it? By what treaty was peace restored?—7. Where did British rule receive a rude shock in 1857? Who were the Sepoys? What did they do at Meerut and Delhi? What is said of Cawnpore? How did the British put down the rebellion? How were captured Sepoys punished?—8. Give an account of the war that France and England carried on against China.

9. By the stoppage of the supply of cotton in 1861, the American war was the cause of much injury to the commerce of England. The English cotton-spinners were reduced to misery, and their pitiable condition invited a relief in money and provisions, which was freely bestowed by both English and Americans. The successful laying of the ocean telegraphic cable in 1866 brought the two countries into more intimate relations.

10. The unhappy condition of oppressed Ireland furnishes ceaseless difficulties for English legislators. The Repeal movement died out with O'Connell, and the Young-Irelanders, who succeeded, soon ceased to be a political force. But an organization known as the Fenians took the place of both. Their membership was wide-spread, and their revolutionary movements kept the English government in a constant state of uneasiness, and brought down upon the people of Ireland the severest measures of repression. The capture of Stephens, the Fenian chief, did not end the trouble. In 1865, numbers of Irishmen were convicted and sentenced to various degrees of punishment. Two years later, three brave men, Allen, Larkin, and O'Brien, were executed in England. Other points in relation to the Fenians are noticed in the chapters on Ireland and Canada.

11. It must be said, however, that the fear inspired by the Fenian movement forced England to throw a few more crumbs of justice to Ireland. In 1867, the bigoted law excluding Catholics from the office of Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and forbidding Catholic mayors and judges to attend in their robes of office at their own places of worship, was repealed. The next step towards pacification was the disestablishment of the Protestant Church in Ireland—a measure which was effected in 1869. In the same year an amnesty was granted to a large number of the Fenian prisoners. In 1871, the English universities were opened on equal terms to lay students of all creeds; and, during the following year, the settlement of the Alabama claims took place at the Conference

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9. How did the American war injure the commerce of England? What is said of the cotton-spinners? Of the ocean telegraphic cable? —10. Relate what is said of the Fenians.—11. Had the Fenian movement any effect on England? What law was repealed in 1867? When was the Protestant Church disestablished in Ireland? What liberal step was taken by the English universities in 1871? When and how were the Alabama claims settled?

of Geneva. England agreed to pay the United States three millions of pounds sterling.*

12. In 1873, England became involved in a petty, but expensive war with the Ashantees. It closed successfully the following year with the capture of Koomassie, the capital, by Sir Garnet Wolseley.

In 1876, Parliament conferred on Queen Victoria the title of "Empress of India."

In Afghanistan, in 1879, appeared an ominous war-cloud, growing out of attempts on the part of Russia to gain ascendency in that country. Its importance arose from Afghanistan being the interlying state between British possessions on the East and those of Russia on the Northwest. The Afghan-Russian faction was beaten, and British supremacy maintained.

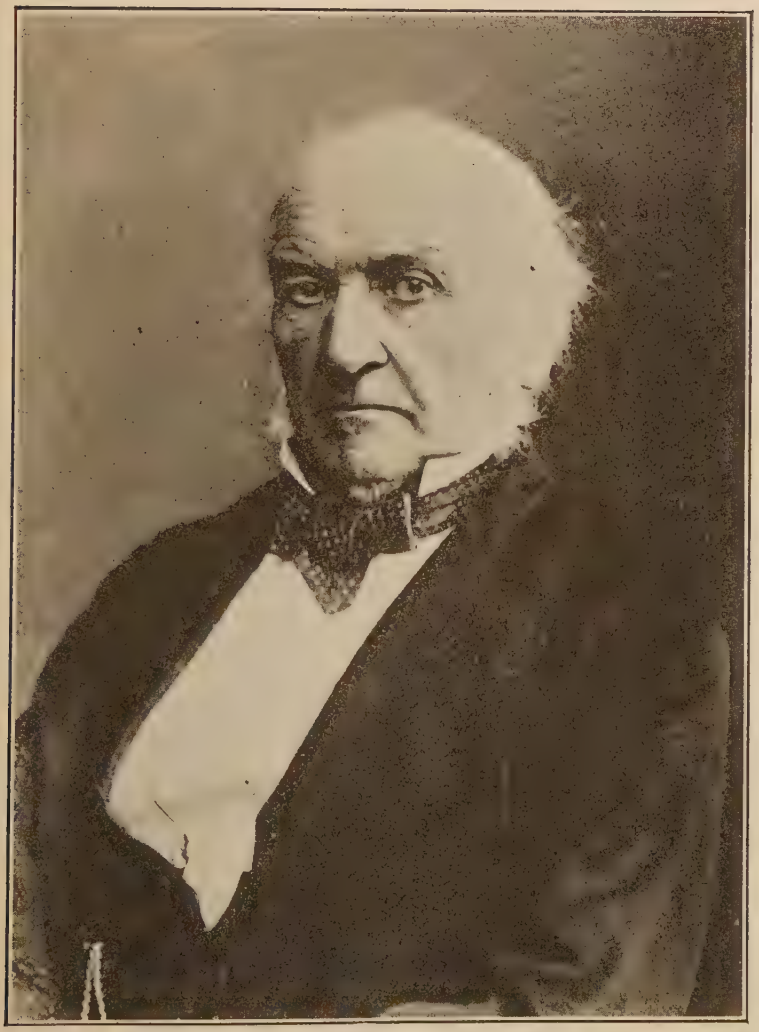
13. Military operations against the Zulus, in 1879, are only memorable for the untimely fate of Prince Louis Napoleon, slain in a reconnoissance by a Zulu spear.

In 1882, Arabi Pasha fomented a rebellion against the British in Egypt. Individual Englishmen had invested immense sums of money in Egyptian enterprises. England, too, held a controlling pecuniary interest in the Suez Canal, and kept watch with jealous eye on that waterway, as commanding the most important route to her East India possessions. To protect these interests she had stationed in Egypt an army of occupation and practically ruled the country—with the pledge given to the other Powers, that she would evacuate as soon as the Egyptians were prepared to govern, the army trained to resist invaders, and security to British rights provided for. Arabi inveighed against England as a usurper, raised the standard of revolt, and soon gathered about him a formidable force. At Tel el Kebir, Sir Garnet Wolseley overwhelmed him and reëstablished British authority.

The following year, General Gordon, having been des-

* The famous Confederate steamer Alabama left a British port and began her career of destruction on the shipping of the North. Our government held England responsible for all the damages that followed—hence the Alabama claims.

What troubles has England had in Africa, and with the United States?—12. What war in 1873? How did it end? What did Parliament in 1876? What brought on the Afghan trouble?—13. Who was slain in the Zulu war? What were the grounds of British control in Egypt? Who rebelled against the British? At what battle and by whom was Arabi Pasha defeated? What was General Gordon sent to do?



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.

patched to the Soudan to overawe malcontents in the Egyptian dependencies in that quarter, was driven into Khartoum and besieged there by the followers of the Mahdi, or False Prophet. Khartoum fell, and the heroic Gordon was slain just as the advance of the relief expedition under General Wolseley reached its vicinity.

14. In 1886, England annexed Burmah to her East India possessions—the result of a brush with that power.

The next year witnessed Stanley's expedition for the relief of Emin Bey, Governor of the equatorial provinces of Egypt. After many hardships and dangers Stanley found him on the shores of Lake Albert N'yanza, and safely conducted him to the coast.

From 1887 until 1899 the foreign relations of England were peaceful, and matters of domestic concern absorbed attention. Among these, interest has centered on Home Rule for Ireland. Ireland's friend was the noble Englishman, William E. Gladstone. He it was who secured the passage of the Act of Disestablishment in 1869, and of the Land Acts in 1870 and 1881; who, in 1886, introduced a Home Rule bill, but whom the Tories then defeated. In 1892, he became premier again on this very Home Rule question, when he again introduced a Home Rule bill (1893) which passed the Commons, but was overwhelmingly defeated in the House of Lords. (See history of Ireland.)

In 1890 Cardinal Newman died. In 1892 Cardinal Manning died. The same year died the poet laureate, Alfred Lord Tennyson. Sketches of these eminent men are given among the biographies.

In January, 1894, Gladstone retired from active political life, his sight having begun to fail him. Soon afterwards his general health also gave way, and he died in the spring of 1898, in his ninetieth year. He was succeeded in the premiership and leadership of the Liberals by the Earl of Rosebery, who retained power only until in the summer of 1895. His ministry, being then defeated in the House of Commons, on an army question, resigned, and Parliament was dissolved. The new general election, held in July of that

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What befell him? Who was sent to his rescue? With what result? —14. What event in 1886? Who went to the relief of Emin Bey? Who was Emin? Did Stanley succeed? On what has interest centered since 1887? Who was Ireland's friend? What has he done for Ireland? What notable deaths occurred in 1890 and 1892? What happened in 1894? And in 1895?

year, resulted in an overwhelming victory for the Unionists, who then came into power, with the Marquis of Salisbury as prime minister. In 1896, a denominational education bill for England and Wales only was introduced, but was not then pressed; nor was it soon revived. The promised Catholic University bill for Ireland was postponed many years. Yet Ireland fared comparatively well from this Parliament. In 1896, a new and more radical, though more complicated, Irish Land Act was passed, and two years later an Irish Local Government Act, which went into effect in the following spring, and has revolutionized the management of the country's minor affairs. County and district councils, elected by the people, on the basis of the parliamentary franchise, have supplanted, respectively, the old privileged grand juries and boards of poor law guardians.

With the opening of the year 1896, an attempt by England to overthrow the government of the Transvaal Republic was frustrated and the raiders captured. Their leaders were tried and convicted, but an attempt to punish their backers proved a fizzle. The difficulty arose out of a claim for franchise privileges made by foreigners in the Transvaal. This claim became the subject of negotiations with England in 1898, and, after threatening for a while to lead to war, ended in a compromise. The question was reopened the following year, and led to the most disastrous and expensive war in which England has been engaged since the time of the great Napoleon. The Orange Free State joined forces with the Transvaal. For nearly six months, from September, 1899, the allied republics were successful. It taxed England's whole military strength to turn the tide of war in the spring of 1900. Then the republics soon lost their independence; but desultory fighting continued for a long time. The government, depending on the war fever, dissolved Parliament in 1900, and the result of the new elections was another overwhelming Unionist victory.

In regard to a boundary dispute between England and Venezuela, which had existed for years, the United States demanded arbitration in the latter part of 1896. England at first spurned the proposal, but yielded the following year. In consequence an international arbitration board of inquiry was appointed, which met in Paris in July, 1899, and, after

What Irish measures in 1896 and 1898? Difficulties with the Transvaal? With Venezuela? England's recent wars? What arbitration board met at Paris in 1899?

hearing the arguments on both sides, rendered a decision in accordance with them.

In 1896, also, England conquered and annexed Ashantee, in West Africa, and in 1897 quelled a formidable uprising of native tribesmen on the northwestern frontier of India. In May of this year the sixtieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's elevation to the throne was celebrated with unprecedented demonstrations. Late in the same year General Kitchener set out with a large army to reconquer the Soudan, and in the following spring completely defeated the Khalifa of that region at Omdurman, not far from the ill-fated Khartoum.

Queen Victoria died January 22, 1901, and was succeeded by her eldest son, the Prince of Wales, as Edward VII.

In the present reign, that of Edward VII, the conquests in South Africa and the older British possessions in that region have been considering the establishment of a federal union. On May 4, 1908, there assembled at Pretoria a conference of official representatives from Cape Colony, Natal, The Transvaal, Orange River Colony, and Rhodesia. Some opposition to such a federation was expected from the Boers, but their leaders have accepted the results of the war and are now working to promote a closer union. This new commonwealth will contain a white population of one million one hundred and fifty thousand, and more than six million people of non-European descent. The convention called by the assembly of May has agreed upon almost everything except the location of the capital. For this honor Cape Town and Pretoria are contending.

In the Boer war the people of Canada rendered efficient service to the mother country. This was appreciated, and when, in 1905, the Anglo-Japanese treaty was about to be formed, Canada was consulted, and approved the agreement. On September 7, 1907, there was rioting in Vancouver, B. C. During these demonstrations some fifty Japanese and Chinese shops were wrecked, and a few Asiatics were injured. At first it seemed as if this would bring about a rupture of the treaty, but the difficulty was peacefully settled. In June,

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The great event of May, 1897? What important conference was held at Pretoria in May, 1908? What provinces were represented? What is the population of the proposed commonwealth? Upon what matter did the conference fail to reach an agreement? What is the attitude of Canada toward the mother country? How does she regard British treaty obligations with the Japanese? What were the Vancouver riots?

1908, an award of $50,000 was granted to those Asiatics who had been injured in the riots. Great Britain and Canada also reached an agreement concerning East Indian immigration to the Dominion.

Toward the end of May, 1908, Mr. Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, introduced into Parliament an old-age pension bill. It was passed without encountering much opposition. During that year it was also discussed in France, the United States, Austria, Italy, and in some of the British Australasian countries. The measure which passed Parliament became operative January 1, 1909. It provides a pension for all persons at least seventy years of age, who are subjects of the United Kingdom and have resided there during the twenty years preceding, and who do not belong to the defective, delinquent or criminal classes, or who are not public dependents. By the last provision the inmates of poor-houses are excluded from the benefits of the law. The pension is graded, the largest being five shillings per week for all qualified persons whose income is not more than £21 per year. It is scarcely necessary to add, that the example of Great Britain is certain to make the question of old-age pensions an important political issue in other enlightened states. An Educational bill of the same session was defeated.

While the South African war finally brought the British army to a high state of efficiency, English statesmen and other influential leaders are somewhat apprehensive of the remarkable growth of Germany. On the sea, an element of which England has long been mistress, the Germans are becoming strong. In commerce, they are nearly everywhere formidable competitors, and in some places have well nigh supplanted British merchants. In England, the progress of Germany is viewed with alarm, and, perhaps, this feeling is not unconnected with the establishment of more friendly relations with

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How was the trouble settled? Does Canada appear to favor the coming of non-Caucasian races? What bill was introduced into Parliament by Mr. Lloyd-George? In what other countries have old-age pensions been discussed? Was it seriously opposed in Parliament? When did the law become operative? What persons are entitled to the benefits of this law? What is the greatest amount paid? How is British example with respect to old-age pensions likely to affect other democratic states? How did the Boer war affect the British Army? How is the growth of Germany regarded in England? What is said of the maritime and commercial development of Germany? What is the effect upon Anglo-French relations of German ambition?

France, the only continental power that would be a powerful ally, if a conflict cannot be avoided. The British dependencies, especially—Canada, Australia, and New Zealand—are developing with so much rapidity that they must be reckoned with. From time to time the question of a federal government for the empire is discussed, and ultimately it may be effected. Already there is an Australasian federation. A scheme of defence for Australia has received careful consideration from the local government, and its provisions for coast and harbor defence have been approved by British admiralty officials. In that country there are now about eight hundred thousand adults, and from their number it is expected that in eight years they will have an army of two hundred thousand men, in addition to their flotilla.

15. **Remarks on English Literature, Science, and Education during the Nineteenth Century.**—The nineteenth century was a bright and fertile age in English letters. Among the chief British writers of this period were: Scott, Byron, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Sidney Smith, Lingard, Carlyle, Dickens, Thackeray, Grote, Macaulay, Wiseman, Ruskin, Browning, Tennyson, Newman, and Manning.

As distinguished writers on the natural and physical sciences, we may mention: Brewster, Faraday, Herschel, Owen, Miller, Darwin, Huxley, Tyndall, and Mivart.

At the beginning of the present century, England was sunk in an abyss of ignorance. There were only three thousand three hundred and sixty-three schools in the kingdom. Forty per cent. of Englishmen and sixty-five per cent. of English women were unable to write their names. But schools have multiplied. Education is now compulsory.

For England this has been truly an age of progress. When the battle of Waterloo was fought, it took the despatches three days to reach London. The first line of telegraph was constructed in 1837. Shortly after Fulton's invention, steamboats were seen plying on the rivers of Scotland and England. The Atlantic was crossed by steamers in 1838. Stephenson's steam-engine ran on the Liverpool and Manchester railway

What British possessions tend to strengthen the mother country? What subject is receiving much consideration in Australia? What army is it proposed to organize for defence?—15. Has the nineteenth century enriched English letters? Name some of the chief British writers of this age. Mention some distinguished scientists. What is said of education in England? Has this been an age of progress in England? When was the first line of telegraph constructed? The first steam-engine?

in 1830; and Sir Rowland Hill invented postage-stamps which first came into use in 1839. Eighty years ago newspapers could only be multiplied by a rude printing-press which could turn out no more than one hundred and fifty copies per hour; now, a machine, driven by steam, is fed with huge rolls of paper, and gives out newspapers, cut and folded, at the rate of twenty-five thousand copies per hour.

When were postage-stamps first used? What is said of the improved printing-press?

THE
BRITISH EMPIRE
EXPLANATION
British Empire
English Trade Routes
GREENLAND
Baffin Bay
ALASKA
BRITISH COLUMBIA
DOMINION OF CANADA
NORTHWEST TERRITORY
Hudson Bay
LABRADOR
C. Farewell
NORTH AMERICA
VANCOUVER I.
Vancouver
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
NEWFOUNDLAND
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
Chicago
NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
San Francisco
Washington
New York
UNITED STATES
AZORES
BERMUDAS
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
Tropic of Cancer
Gulf of Mexico
MEXICO
BAHAMAS
SANDWICH IS.
BR. HONDURAS
JAMAICA
LEEWARD IS.
WINDWARD IS.
TRINIDAD
BRITISH GUIANA
C. VERDE IS.
SIERRA LEONE
COLOMBIA
Equator
OCEANIA
GALAPAGOS IS.
SOUTH AMERICA
C. S. Roque
MANIHIKI
SAMOA IS.
SOCIETY IS.
LOW ARCHIPELAGO
PERU
Lima
BRAZIL
FRIENDLY IS.
COOK IS.
SOUTH PACIFIC OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
Rio de Janeiro
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
CHILE
ARGENTINA
CHATHAM IS.
FALKLAND IS.
S. GEORGIA
C. Horn
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
West

20
40
60
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140
160
180
FRANZ JOSEPH'S LAND
A R C T I C O C E A N
NOVAIA ZEMLIA
Kara Sea
NEW SIBERIA
Arctic Circle
S I B E R I A
R U S S I A N E M P I R E
St. Petersburg
Okhotsk Sea
A S I A
AUSTRIA
TURKESTAN
CHINESE EMPIRE
Peking
TURKEY
PERSIA
Persian Gulf
JAPAN
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
EGYPT
Red Sea
ARABIA
INDIA
Calcutta
BURMAH
SIAM
Hong Kong
PHILIPPINE IS.
Aden
Bombay
SOUDAN
PERIM
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
MALDIVE IS.
CEYLON
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS
LABUAN
BR. N. BORNEO
Equator
SEYCHELLE IS.
CHAGOS IS.
Singapore
BORNEO
SUMATRA
NEW GUINEA
CONGO
Zanzibar
Batavia
OCEANIA
INDIAN OCEAN
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA
MADAGASCAR
MAURITIUS
FIJI
BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA
CAPE COLONY
Natal
QUEENSLAND
AUSTRALIA
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
WEST AUSTRALIA
Perth
Brisbane
NEW S. WALES
Sydney
NORFOLK I.
S. PACIFIC OCEAN
Adelaide
VICTORIA
Melbourne
TASMANIA
NEW ZEALAND
ST. PAUL I.
KERGUELEN LAND
Greenwich
East

BOOK VIII

SCOTLAND

CHAPTER I

SCOTLAND IN EARLY TIMES.

THE early history of Scotland is greatly involved in fable and obscurity. The claim of the Scotch to a regular succession of kings from the time of Alexander the Great seems entitled to little credit. Fergus I they consider as the founder of their monarchy, and he is said to have been the first who displayed on his banner the royal emblem of Scotland—namely, a red lion with his tail folded on his back, the attitude which that noble animal assumes when aroused to anger. When the Romans took their final leave of England, in 410, the people of Scotland were divided into a number of hostile tribes, the principal of which were the Scots and Picts; the latter was subdued by Ken'neth II, who became King of Scotland, A. D. 843.*

* The original Scots were an Irish colony that conquered a portion of Caledonia and settled there. Ireland, it must be remembered, was called Scotia in early ages, and its inhabitants Scots. King Niall of the Nine Hostages, monarch of Ireland at the close of the fourth century, was the first who gave the name of Scotia Minor, or "Little Scotia," to Scotland. Before that "Scotland" went by the name of Alba. The Scots (or Irish) and the Picts lived as good neighbors till about the year 840, when Kenneth II, king of the Scots, defeated the Picts. About the year 900 the Scots became masters of the rest of the country, and from that time all North Britain took the name of Scotland, or land of the Scots. At a somewhat later period Ireland gradually lost the name of Scotia, which was thus wholly transferred to the neighboring country that she had conquered and colonized. Such, in brief, was the origin of the name Scotland. Nearly all the great old Scottish families—as the MacDonalds, Campbells, Murrays, etc.—are lineal descendants of the ancient Irish that colonized and became masters of North Britain.—*Little Lives of the Great Saints*, by John O'Kane Murray, M. A., M. D.

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the history of Scotland? Whom do they consider as the founder of their monarchy? What is said of him? How were the people divided? By whom were the latter subdued?

2. Little of importance or interest occurs in the history of the country from the time of Kenneth until the reign of Alexander III. Upon the death of Alexander a number of competitors for the crown appeared, among whom Robert Bruce and John Ba'liol seemed to have had the best claims. They were both descended from David, Earl of Huntington, third son of David I. To avoid, however, the miseries of civil war, they resolved to refer the case to Edward I, of England as umpire, and submit to his decision. Edward finding Baliol the more obsequious, decided in his favor, and Baliol consented to receive the crown as a vassal of England. Some authorities consider his claim at least as good as that of Bruce.

3. But the fierce and warlike barons could not brook the passive spirit of John, and the encroachment on their liberty by the English monarch. A war ensued between the two kingdoms. Edward marched into Scotland at the head of a powerful army, and, after defeating the Scots in a battle near Dunbar, reduced the whole country to subjection. The weak and timid spirit of Baliol induced him to surrender the crown into the hands of the English king.

4. At this critical juncture, when the liberties of Scotland lay prostrate at the feet of the conqueror, the dying energies of the nation were aroused by the valor and patriotism of Sir William Wallace. The deeds of this hero are, in many instances, colored by fiction; yet, divested of all their embellishments, they remain sufficiently great to render him worthy of the exalted name of patriot. Almost single-handed he ventured to take up arms in defence of the kingdom, and by his boldness revived the spirit of his countrymen. He persuaded Robert Bruce to assert the right and vindicate the honor of his country. The Scots flocked to the standard of Bruce, who, after a variety of victories, succeeded in restoring the independence of his country, and was elevated to the throne, A. D. 1306.

5. Edward again made preparations for invading Scotland, and had advanced as far as Carlisle, when he suddenly died. In the reign of his successor was fought, near Sterling, the

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2. On the death of Alexander, what took place? To avoid civil war, what did they resolve? What did Edward do?—3. What is said of the barons? What ensued? What did Edward do?—4. At this critical juncture, what took place? What is said of his deeds? What did he persuade Bruce? What is said of the Scots?—5. In the reign of his successor, what battle was fought?

famous battle of Bannockburn. It was in 1314. Edward commanded the English forces in person, and Robert Bruce those of Scotland. The engagement terminated in the signal defeat of the English army, and firmly established the victorious Bruce on the throne of his ancestors.* Bruce died in 1329, and was succeeded by his son, David II, at the age of four years. During his minority, the Earl of Murray was appointed regent of the kingdom, and fulfilled the duties of his station with justice and moderation.

6. About the year 1331, Edward Ba'liol, the son of John Baliol, taking advantage of the king's minority, began to bring forward pretensions to the crown. Aided by many of the English barons, he landed in Scotland and defeated the Earl of Mar, who had succeeded Murray in the office of regent. Baliol was immediately crowned king, and acknowledged the English monarch as his superior. Thus was Scotland a second time reduced to a state of dependence and subjection to England.

7. The spirit of freedom which had so long characterized the Scots slumbered for a season, but was not extinguished. The faithful adherents of the deposed king watched the earliest opportunity to strike for the liberty of their country, and to shake off the hateful English yoke. At length Scottish valor prevailed. Baliol was expelled from the country, and David II was again restored to the throne, A. D. 1341.

8. David was a weak but virtuous prince, and passed through many reverses of fortune. He was taken prisoner by the English in the battle of Durham, and remained in captivity for eleven years; but he was at length ransomed by his subjects, and died in 1370. He was succeeded by his nephew, Robert Stuart, the first of that family who swayed the sceptre

* At this famous battle the English army numbered one hundred thousand men; the Scotch and their Irish allies, thirty thousand. The English lost a large portion of their army, and it was with difficulty that Edward saved himself by flight. The body of brave Irish archers sent by Donald O'Neill, king of Ulster, to aid Bruce—among whom were a number of O'Kanes—seem to have made a deep impression on the English, for the poet, Chaucer, writes:

"To Albion Scots we ne'er would yield—
The Irish bowmen won the field."

Give the date of it? How did it terminate? When did Bruce die? By whom was he succeeded?—6. In the year 1331 what took place? What followed?—7. What is said of the spirit of freedom? Of Baliol?—8. What is said of David? By whom was he succeeded?

of Scotland. The race of the Stuarts is, perhaps, the most unfortunate in the annals of history; with few exceptions, they all came to some unhappy or tragical end.

CHAPTER II

THE HOUSE OF STUART: FROM ROBERT II TO JAMES VI.—A. D. 1370 TO 1603.

ROBERT II, a prince characterized by the mildness of his disposition, was quite unequal to the task of managing his fierce and untractable subjects. His reign was marked by a series of contests which took place between the English and the Scottish borderers. The great families of Douglas and Percy, whose estates lay near each other, were at continual variance. On one occasion they met at Otterburn. An obstinate battle ensued, in which the English were routed, but the Earl of Douglas was slain. It is said that the celebrated ballad of Chevy Chase was written to commemorate the single combat between Douglas and Percy. Robert died in 1390, and was succeeded by his son, under the title of Robert III.

2. The reign of this prince was rendered unhappy through the conduct of his turbulent nobles. The Duke of Albany, a brother of the king, a man of the greatest ambition and cruelty, having represented to Robert some misconduct of his son, prevailed on the king to deliver him into his custody. Having obtained possession of the person of the young prince, he conducted him to the castle of Falkland, and cast him into a dungeon, where he died in a short time for want of food.

3. Robert, now old and infirm, was unable to revenge this outrage; but having another son called James, then eleven years of age, he resolved to send him to France to avoid the power and cruelty of the duke. On his way, the young prince unfortunately fell into the hands of the English, by whom he was taken to London, and by order of Henry committed

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CHAPTER II.—1. What is said of Robert II? Of the Earls of Douglas and Percy? On one occasion what took place? When did Robert die?—2. What is said of the reign of this prince? Of the Duke of Albany? Where did he conduct the young prince?—3. What is said of Robert? On the way, what happened to the prince?

to the tower. At the news of this disaster, Robert was so overpowered with grief that he died shortly after of a broken heart, A. D. 1405.

4. James was detained eighteen years in captivity in England, during which time he adorned his mind with every valuable accomplishment, and had leisure to learn the superior wisdom of the English laws and government. It was during this period that he wrote a poem,* which gives him a high place among the poets of the fifteenth century. In 1424 he married Lady Joan Beaufort, the daughter of the Earl of Somerset. The young king of England presented him with a suit of gold cloth for the ceremony, after which he departed for Scotland, and was crowned the same year at Scone, under the title of James I.

5. James, on his arrival, found the affairs of Scotland very different from those of England. During the regency of Albany the kingdom was filled with great disorders, and the royal authority had fallen into utter contempt; in every section of the country some barbarous chieftain ruled at pleasure, without regard to the authority of the king or the interest of the people. The first object of James was to curb the exorbitant power of the nobility. A law was passed in Parliament, by which the leagues and combinations which rendered the nobles so powerful were declared illegal. He caused a number of the most refractory to be arrested and brought to trial. The king himself presided in person, dressed in his royal robes, with the sceptre and globe in his hand. The turbulent chiefs were found guilty and publicly executed.

6. James having thus restored order in his kingdom, and being a prince of refined accomplishments and one of the most elegant scholars of his age, turned all his attention towards the improvement and civilization of his subjects. But the check that he had given to the power of the nobility had irritated the whole body, and they only waited a favorable opportunity for conspiring against him. While holding

* "The King's Quire." It contains one hundred and ninety-seven seven-lined stanzas.

At the news, what is said of Robert?—4. How long was James detained in captivity? In 1424, what did he do? With what was he presented by the King of England?—5. On his arrival, how did he find the affairs of Scotland? What was the first act of James? What did he cause?—6. To what did James turn his attention?

a feast at Perth, he had taken up his abode at the Convent of Blackfriars, there being no palace or castle convenient, and had quartered his guards among the citizens. A conspiracy was entered into, at the head of which appeared the Earl of Athol and Sir Robert Graham, and this was deemed a favorable moment for carrying it into execution.

7. The king had passed the 20th of February, 1437, in various amusements with his nobles and the ladies of his court, and was cheerfully conversing with his queen and her attendants, when suddenly a noise was heard, and the flaming of torches was seen in the convent gardens. At the first alarm, the king, judging that his life was in danger, ordered the doors to be closed, while he endeavored to effect his escape. Lady Catharine Douglas hastened to bolt the outer door at the hall, but not finding the bar, she resolutely pushed her arm through the staple, which was broken by the conspirators in forcing the door. Dunbar, a young nobleman who attempted to guard the antechamber, was struck dead; and the queen herself received several wounds from the assassins. James, who was remarkably strong and active, defended himself for some time with great resolution; but at length, overpowered by numbers, he fell under repeated blows of the conspirators.

8. The traitors immediately retreated to the Highlands, but by the unremitting exertions of his queen they were all taken in the short space of a month, brought to trial, and executed. The Earl of Athol, to whom it had been predicted that he should die a king, was crowned with a red-hot diadem as king of traitors; and after that horrible ceremony, he was beheaded.

James I was murdered in the forty-fourth year of his age, and in the thirteenth of his reign. He was one of the wisest and most accomplished sovereigns that ever swayed the Scottish sceptre.

9. James II succeeded his father on the throne at the early age of six years, while the affairs of state were chiefly under the direction of Alexander Livingston and Sir William Crichton.

At Perth, where did he take up his abode? What was entered into against him?—7. How did the king pass the 20th of February? At the first alarm, what was done? What is said of Lady Catharine? Of Dunbar? Of James?—8. What is said of the traitors? Of the Earl of Athol? When did James die? What was he?—9. Who succeeded?

At this period the house of Douglas had reached the height of its power. The Douglases were remarkable for their courage and military talents, also for the pomp of their retinue and the number of their armed followers. In 1438 the Earl of Douglas died, leaving two sons, the eldest a youth of sixteen. Livingston and Crichton thought this a favorable opportunity for crushing forever the powerful house of Douglas. With this intention they invited the young earl and his brother to court, as companions for the young king. Without suspecting the base design in contemplation, they accepted the invitation and set out with their attendants to Edinburgh castle. They were received with every mark of respect, especially by James, who had no suspicion of the treacherous intentions of his guardians. A splendid entertainment was given them, in the midst of which a party of armed men rushed into the apartment, and seizing upon the unsuspecting companions of James, dragged them into the court of the castle, where, undergoing a mock trial for the insolence of their ancestors, they were condemned and beheaded.

10. James II is said to have been a handsome man, and of a quick, impetuous temper. His reign was distinguished by his strenuous efforts to humble the power of his haughty nobles. In 1460, he laid siege to the castle of Roxburgh for the purpose of recovering it from the hands of the English. During the siege, James ordered the artillery to fire upon the castle, when one of the guns burst, and killed him upon the spot, in the twenty-ninth year of his age.

11. James III, who succeeded his father, possessed neither his ability nor his talents. He secluded himself in the castle of Stirling, where he devoted himself to pursuits ill becoming a sovereign, and raised the indignation of his barons by his attachment to unworthy favorites. At length a powerful league was formed against him, which was joined by most of the southern lords. The king marched towards the north, and, having arrived at Stirling, was refused admittance by the governor. He then demanded his son, but was told that the young prince had been carried off by the rebel lords.

In 1438, what took place? What is related of Livingston and Crichton, and what was the fate of the two sons of Douglas? —10. What is said of James? How was he killed? —11. Who succeeded? What is said of him? What was formed against him?

12. Upon receiving this intelligence, the king immediately advanced at the head of thirty thousand men to meet the insurgents. The army was arrayed in three divisions, the king himself commanding the rear. The battle commenced with fury on both sides, and for some time was sustained with equal success. At length the western borderers, charging with their long spears, bore down all before them. James, unable to stand the charge, turned and fled. As he retreated, he passed by a small hamlet near a mill; his horse, taking fright at a woman who came out for water, suddenly turned and precipitated the king to the ground, who, being heavily armed and stunned by the fall, was unable to rise. The people soon collected, and removed him into the mill. When he recoved, he called out for a priest. Being asked by the miller's wife who he was, he replied: "I was your king this morning." The woman, struck with surprise, hastened out and called loudly for a priest to attend the king. Upon this a stranger rode up and said: "I am a priest, lead me to the king." He was immediately introduced, and, kneeling down, asked James if he thought he was dangerously injured. The king replied that he thought not, but in the meantime desired that his confession might be heard, and that he might receive absolution. "This shall absolve you," replied the assassin, and drawing a poniard, plunged it into the breast of the unhappy monarch. And thus died James III, in the thirty-sixth year of his age.

13. The throne was immediately occupied by his son and successor, James IV, a great and accomplished prince, respected by his nobles, and beloved by his subjects. He loved magnificence, and his court was renowned throughout Europe. He bitterly regretted his misfortune, in being compelled to appear in the field with the rebel lords; and considering himself in a manner accessory to his father's death, he imposed upon himself a voluntary penance, which he continued to observe during the remainder of his life. He caused an iron girdle to be made, which he wore under his clothes; and, as if desirous that his pennance might increase with his age, he every year added a new link to its weight.

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12. On receiving this intelligence what did the king do? Describe the battle. As he retreated, what happened? Being asked who he was, what did he reply? What was his end?—13. By whom was the throne occupied? What did he regret? What did he cause?

14. In 1502, he married the Princess Margaret, daughter of Henry VII, of England, an accomplished and virtuous woman. James, who excelled in all the martial exercises, and particularly delighted in tilts and tournaments, was eager for an occasion to display his prowess. During the reign of Henry VIII, the harmony which had subsisted between England and Scotland began gradually to be disturbed, until at length there was an open rupture. James, contrary to the advice of the ablest and most prudent of his ministers, and against every entreaty of his queen, resolved upon the invasion of England.

15. Having with much difficulty obtained the consent of Parliament, he gave orders for the forces of the kingdom to meet him at Edinburgh. After having completed his preparations, the king, on the twenty-second of August, entered England at the head of his army, attended by the flower of the Scottish nobility, and pitched his camp on Flodden Field. Here he was met by the English army, commanded by the Earl of Surrey, who, confident of his superior strength, endeavored to bring the Scottish king to an engagement.

16. After some mutual suspense, the signal for the battle was given, and the combatants on both sides rushed to the contest with vigor. At the first onset, the forces of James threw the right wing of the English into disorder; but at that moment, Thomas Howard, at the head of his English division, bore down upon the Scots, while at the same time they were charged in the rear by Sir Edward Stanley. Dreadful was the carnage that now ensued. The king fought on foot in the thickest of the contest. His nobles, to whom he was dear, pressed and entreated him to escape. Night at length put an end to the conflict, during which the Scottish army silently withdrew, leaving the king and the flower of his nobility numbered among the slain.

17. James V, who succeeded his father, was then an infant only a year old; during his minority, the office of regent was conferred on the Duke of Albany. The duke, however, being a native of France, and quite unacquainted with the manners and customs of Scotland, met with considerable opposition from the turbulent nobles; and after an unsuccessful struggle, he voluntarily resigned his office, and retired to

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14. Whom did he marry? In what did he excel? During his reign, what was weakened?—15. When did he enter England? Where did he pitch his camp?—16. After the signal was given, what is said of the combatants? Describe the battle. What was the fate of James?—17. By whom was he succeeded?

France. The young king, now in his thirteenth year, assumed the reins of government, with eight persons appointed as his chief counsellors, of whom the Earl of Angus was the most prominent. James bore the empty title of king, while the ambitious earl exercised the regal authority. His person was guarded by a body of one hundred men; but all the higher offices of his household were filled by members of the Douglas family, and relatives of Angus.

This was a restraint which the young monarch reluctantly bore, and waited every opportunity to free himself from the power of the earl. Having at length effected his escape, he rode to Stirling, assembled around him his faithful adherents, and issued a proclamation, declaring any of the Douglas family a traitor who should dare to approach within twelve miles of his person. Angus and his adherents were accused of treason in Parliament, their goods were forfeited, and they themselves driven into exile.

18. The education of James had been much neglected; his was that of a great but uncultivated mind; his passions were violent, yet he was distinguished for the affability of his deportment. Henry VIII having declared war against Scotland, James prepared to defend his dominions. At the approach of the Scottish army, the English retired. James proposed to pursue them; but his barons resolutely refused to advance beyond their own borders. The king, mortified and disappointed, disbanded his army, and returned to his capital. Shortly after this, it was proposed to make an attack upon the English borders, and the troops for this purpose were placed under the command of Oliver Sinclair. But the barons, indignant to see a person of inferior rank placed over them, basely surrendered their whole army, consisting of ten thousand men, to the enemy, without the slightest resistance. When the news of this event was brought to the king, he burst into a transport of rage; after which a distressing melancholy seized upon his mind. While in this state, he was informed of the birth of his daughter, afterwards the unfortunate Queen Mary. At this news he ex-

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In his thirteenth year, what did the king do? What is said of his person? Having effected his escape, what did he do?—18. What was his character? What was done by Henry VIII? What did James propose? What did the barons do? What after this was proposed? What did the barons again do? At this news, what is said of the king? Of what was he informed?

claimed: "It will end as it began. The crown came with a woman, it will go with one. How many miseries await this poor kingdom." These were his last words; he expired of a broken heart, in the thirty-first year of his age, A. D. 1542.

CHAPTER III

THE EVENTFUL AND UNFORTUNATE CAREER OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

MARY, Queen of Scots, so celebrated for her beauty and misfortunes, was but a few days old at the time of her father's death. Hamilton, Earl of Arran, was appointed regent of the kingdom. Proposals were made, by Henry the VIII, of England, of marriage between the infant queen of Scots and his son Edward, who was then also a child. The proposals were rejected by the Scots, in consequence of which hostilities were declared by the two countries. The conflict was carried on for some time with varied success.

2. All prospects of a union between Mary and Edward being now at an end, it was resolved that she should form an alliance with the Dauphin of France, and should be sent to that country that she might be educated at the French court. Accordingly, in 1648, the young queen, then in her sixth year, embarked for France, while her mother, Mary of Guise, was made regent of Scotland, in place of Hamilton. On the death, of Queen Mary, of England, Elizabeth, her sister, succeeded to the throne of that country. But as the divorce between Henry and his first queen had never been ratified by the Pope, the Catholics, naturally regarding Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry and Anne Boleyn, as illegitimate, looked upon the young queen of Scotland, the grand-daughter of Margaret, Henry's sister, as the rightful heir to the English crown. Mary was induced to assert her claim. Money was even coined, on which Mary and Francis assumed the title and arms of England and Scotland.

What did he exclaim?

CHAPTER III.—1. What is said of Mary, Queen of Scots? What proposals were made, and how were they received?—2. All prospects of a union being ended, what was resolved? As the divorce, etc., had never been ratified, what did the Catholics regard and look upon? What was Mary induced to do?

3. The so-called Reformers in Scotland, assisted by Elizabeth, had taken up arms against the Queen Regent, and the English army, under the command of Lord Grey, having entered Scotland, was joined by the members of the congregation from all parts of the kingdom. The Queen Regent, unable to withstand their united forces, retired to the castle of Edinburgh, where she shortly after died. She was a princess possessed of great ability and many amiable qualities. After her death, peace was restored and a treaty concluded, by which great concessions were made to the Reformers. During the contest, many of the most splendid churches and beautiful buildings were demolished by the Protestants. The abbeys and monasteries, with the cells of the monks, were levelled to the ground by a generation of destroying fanatics.

4. In 1560, Francis II, of France, died; after this Mary resolved to return to her native kingdom. During her residence in France, her education had been particularly attended to. She was mistress of several languages; wrote both prose and verse with elegance and ease; excelled in music and all the accomplishments of her sex. She was condescending and gay in her manners, graceful in all her movements, and was reputed to be the most beautiful woman, at that period, in Europe. With the deepest regret, she bid adieu to France, where she had passed the happy days of childhood, and after a short passage, landed at Leith, in her own dominions, where she was received with every demonstration of joy by her subjects and nobles, who conducted her to Holyrood, the palace of her ancestors.

5. As she rode through the streets of the capital, the inhabitants were dazzled by her splendor, and struck with admiration at her beauty. Her warlike nobles, as they crowded around her, were softened into the deepest reverence. Happy for Mary, if she could have gained equally the affection of all her subjects. But there was one class over which all her gentleness could not exert the slightest influence. She was a Catholic. The zealous Reformers, therefore, regarded her as an enemy to their belief, although she had early declared her determination to molest no one for the free exercise of reli-

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3. What is said of the Reformers? Of the queen regent? During the contest, what took place?—4. In 1560, what happened? What did Mary resolve to do? What is said of her education and accomplishments? Where did she land?—5. What is said of her as she rode through the capital? What was she?

gion. The Reformed preachers spoke openly against her with the most intemperate violence. The rude John Knox even boasted that he had spoken so roughly to her, when she condescended to expostulate with him, as to bring tears to her eyes. On the Sunday after her arrival, she had Mass celebrated in the chapel at Holyrood, but such was the intolerant spirit of the populace, that the priest narrowly escaped being murdered at the altar.

6. The most powerful princes of Europe solicited the hand of the Scottish queen. But Mary rejected them all, and turned her affections towards a young nobleman of high birth, connected with the royal families of England and Scotland. This was Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, the eldest son of the Earl of Lennox—a man whose only recommendation seems to have been his personal appearance and external accomplishments. Queen Mary and Lord Darnley were married on the 29th of July, 1565.

7. Shortly after the queen's marriage, an insurrection was excited against her, at the head of which appeared Mary's own kinsman, the Earl of Murray. The queen appealed to the loyalty of her subjects, and the alacrity with which they responded to the call, proved her popularity. She rode at their head to inspire them with courage, and led them against the insurgents. The insurrection was soon quelled, and order again restored.

8. Mary soon found that her union with Darnley was likely to produce but little comfort or pleasure. He was a man of no stability of character; naturally haughty and jealous; rendered giddy by the height to which he was raised by his marriage with the queen of Scotland, he demanded the crown matrimonial, that is, an equal right in the crown with his consort. This concession Mary refused, without the consent of her Parliament. He grew impatient, and set no bounds to his resentment. In conjunction with several of the nobles of his court, he determined on the death of Rizzio, the queen's Italian secretary. This atrocious deed was perpetrated at Holyrood palace, in the very presence of the queen and several ladies of her court.

What happened on the Sunday after her arrival?—6. What is said of the princes of Europe? On whom did Mary turn her affections?—7. After her marriage, what took place? What is said of the queen?—8. What did she soon find? What did he demand? What did he do?

9. Darnley, a few months after this event, being seized with a violent illness, was advised, as soon as the state of his health would permit, to remove to a house near Edinburgh, called the Kirk of Field, for the benefit of the air. Mary frequently visited him there, with every mark of affection. On the 9th of February, 1567, the house in which Darnley resided was blown up with gunpowder; his body, with those of several of his attendants, was thrown into an adjacent garden.

10. The suspicion of the murder fell upon the Earl of Bothwell, and the queen herself was accused of being an accomplice in the death of her husband. In a few days, the Earl of Lennox came forward and openly accused Bothwell. Bothwell and several others were impeached as the murderers, and a day was appointed for their trial. At the appointed time, Bothwell appeared in Edinburgh to stand his trial, accompanied by a large body of soldiery, and attended by four thousand gentlemen. A motion made by Lennox to suspend the trial for forty days, was rejected; and no prosecutor appearing, the jury, with the consent of the nobles and gentlemen, returned a verdict in favor of the accused. Bothwell, disregarding the murmurs of the people against this mockery of justice, invited the nobles to a splendid entertainment, and prevailed on them to sign a bond, in which they not only declared him innocent of the king's death, but recommended him to Mary as the most suitable person for her future husband.

11. Shortly after this, as Mary was returning from Sterling, where she had been on a visit to her son, she was met by Bothwell, at the head of a thousand horse, and led captive to the castle of Dunbar, from which she was only released after she consented to become his wife. Mary requested time, that she might consult the king of France and her relations of the house of Guise. But the ambition of Bothwell was too impatient to run the hazard of delay. The only remaining obstacle, his marriage with Janet Gordon, the sister to the Earl of Huntly, was in a few days removed by a divorce, which he obtained on the grounds of consanguinity.

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9. A few months after this event, what is said of Darnley? On the 9th of February, 1567, what took place?—10. On whom did the suspicion fall? What is said of Bothwell and several others? What did the jury do? What did Bothwell now do?—11. After this, what is related of Mary? What did she request? What obstacle was in the way?

In the short space of one month after his trial, Bothwell led the now unhappy queen to the court sessions, where she forgave him the outrages committed against her person, and created him Duke of Orkney. On the following day, they were married in the hall of Holyrood House.

12. To explain this extraordinary transaction would too far exceed the limits of these short outlines; suffice it to say, that many of the ablest historians have deduced the clearest evidence to prove that Mary was innocent of all participation in the death of her husband, and that her marriage with Bothwell was effected by force.*

13. The nobles, roused by the insult cast upon themselves and their sovereign, flew to arms. A battle was fought at Carberry Hill, in which the forces of the queen were routed. Bothwell fled from the field, and Mary surrendered herself into the hands of the lords, and was conducted by them to Edinburgh. As the queen rode through the streets of the capital, she was accosted in the most insulting language by the populace, and upbraided as the murderess of her husband. On the following morning, she was escorted by a strong force, and conveyed to the castle of Lochleven, situated on a small island in the middle of a lake.

14. Here she was compelled to resign her crown in favor of her infant son, and the Earl of Murray was immediately appointed regent. Mary; after languishing in captivity for some months, effected her escape, and, assembling her faithful adherents around her, made an unsuccessful effort to regain her crown. She was met by the Regent at Langside, and after an obstinate engagement, the queen's forces were completely routed. Mary having witnessed the defeat of her arms, contrary to all the entreaties of her friends, took the fatal resolution of throwing herself upon the mercy of Elizabeth, the English queen, from whom she received the warmest expressions of friendship and offers of protection. Accordingly, on the 16th of May, she crossed the Solway in

* See Meline's *Mary, Queen of Scots,* and Lingard's *History of England.*

Where did Bothwell lead the queen?—12. What have many of the ablest historians deduced?—13. What is said of the nobles? What battle followed? What is said of Mary? On the following morning, where was she conveyed? 14. What was she compelled to do here? What did Mary do after some months? Where was she met? What resolution did she take?

an open fishing-boat, with a few attendants, and landed on the shores of England.

15. But Elizabeth, instead of affording the promised protection, basely sent the unhappy queen to Tutbury castle, where she was placed in the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury. Various circumstances contributed to render Elizabeth jealous of her rival, the chief of which was her pretension to the English crown. For eighteen years the queen of Scots languished in captivity in the dominions of her hard-hearted cousin. At length the English government resolved to crown the measure of her sorrows by an ignominious death. After much affected delay and regret, Elizabeth signed the warrant for Mary's execution.

16. When the messengers sent to inform her of her fate arrived at Fotheringay castle, they found Mary, with her female attendants, engaged in evening prayer. She received them with her usual serenity, and heard her sentence read with the greatest composure. After which, placing her hand upon her Bible, she solemnly protested her innocence of the crimes laid to her charge, particularly that of conspiring against the queen of England. The fanatical Earl of Kent observed, that as the book was a "Popish" Bible, her oath was of no avail. Mary replied with dignity, that her oath on that account was the more solemn, as she herself was a Catholic. Being informed that her execution would take place on the following morning, she began immediately to prepare for that trying scene, and asked that she might be allowed to see her confessor, who for a considerable period had not been permitted to visit her; but she was barbarously denied this simple and only request. The unhappy queen was thus refused the consolation of the last rites of her religion.

17. On the evening previous to her execution, she wrote several letters—one to the king of France, and another to Elizabeth—in a mild and dignified style, in which she expressed her gratitude that the period of her sorrowful pilgrimage was drawing to a close, and requested that her remains might be conveyed to France, and placed beside those of her

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15. What is said of Elizabeth? How many years did the queen languish in captivity? At length, what was resolved?—16. How did the messengers find Mary? How did she receive them? What did she protest? What did the Earl of Kent observe? What did Mary reply? What did she ask?—17. On the evening previous to the execution, what did she do?

mother. Before retiring, she called together her servants, and taking a glass of wine, she drank to them all. They pledged her in turn upon their knees, and asked her pardon for any neglect in their duty. On her part, she humbly asked their forgiveness for any offence towards them, and after distributing among them what remained of her money and jewels, she took her leave of them in the most affectionate manner.

18. She retired to rest at her usual hour, although she slept but little, being engaged the greater part of the night in prayer. As it grew towards morning, she arose and dressed herself in a rich robe of silk and velvet. When the sheriff entered her room and informed her that the fatal hour had arrived, she replied that she was ready, and followed him with a cheerful countenance. On passing through the hall she met Sir Andrew Melville, the master of her household, who, in tears, lamented the ill-merited fate of his mistress. She told him not to weep, but rather to rejoice, that she was so soon to be released from all her afflictions. She then delivered to him her last farewell to all her friends, and to her son in particular. Up to this moment Mary seemed to bear all the circumstances of the trying scene with a fortitude that elecited the admiration of even her enemies. At the mention of her son, however, she was no longer able to restrain the emotion of her heart; all the love, the affection, and the tenderness of a mother was recalled: she burst into tears.

19. She bore without shrinking the gaze of the spectators and the sight of the scaffold, the block, and the executioner, and advanced into the hall with that grace and majesty which she had so often displayed in her happier days and in the palace of her fathers. With an ivory crucifix in her hand, she seated herself on a stool, while the dean of Peterborough, in a discourse, exhorted her to renounce the religion of her ancestors, and die in the Protestant faith. Mary replied that she had been born in the Catholic religion, in that she had lived, and in that she had resolved to die. She

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Before retiring, what did she do? What did she ask?—18. What did she do as it inclined towards morning? When the sheriff entered, what did she reply? Whom did she meet? What did she tell and deliver to him? At the mention of her son, what is said of Mary?—19. How did she advance to the hall of execution? What did Mary reply.

then offered up her prayers aloud for the Catholic Church, for her son, and for her cousin, queen Elizabeth. Having taken her last farewell of her faithful attendants, without the least emotions of fear, she calmly resigned her head to the block, and it was severed from the body by the second stroke of the axe.* Thus ended the eventful life of the illustrious queen of Scots, an event which has placed an indelible stain upon the memory of Elizabeth.

20. James VI, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, who was only an infant when placed upon the throne, assumed the reigns of government at the age of fourteen. His partiality to unworthy favorites excited against him the indignation and jealousy of his nobles. The consequence was that a number of conspiracies were formed against him, and on several occasions the king narrowly escaped with his life. No event of importance occurred during his reign in Scotland. In 1603, Elizabeth of England died, having previously appointed James her successor to the English throne. On the Sunday before his departure for England, he repaired to the church of St. Giles, and took a solemn farewell of his Scottish subjects. On the 7th of May he entered London, and was received with shouts of approbation by the people. From this period the history of Scotland becomes united with that of England. During the reign of Queen Anne, the legislative union between England and Scotland was effected, by which the latter was deprived of her national Parliament, and both included under the common title Great Britain, A. D. 1707.

* The reader may ask, "What did her son, King James, of Scotland, do?" "It may appear surprising," says Lingard, "but a full month elapsed before the king of Scotland received any certain intelligence of the execution of his mother. At the news he burst into tears, and talked of nothing but vengeance; but Elizabeth's partisans at the Scottish court supported the cause. They admonished James to recollect that he was now the next heir to the English crown, and advised him not to forfeit that splendid inheritance by offending a princess who alone could remove him from it. His indignation gradually evaporated, and his mouth was sealed with a present of £4,000."—*History of England.*

For what did she offer her prayers? Having taken leave of her attendants, what did she do?—20. What is said of James VI? In 1603, what took place? On the Sunday before his departure, what did he do? During the reign of Queen Anne, what was effected?

IRELAND

CHAP. I - END.

B.C. 2000 - A.D. 1901.

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BOOK IX

IRELAND

CHAPTER I

ANCIENT PAGAN IRELAND.

THE early history of Ireland carries us back to a period more remote than does the story of ancient Greece or Rome. The first inhabitants of this beautiful island, according to the best authorities, were descended from the Celts, who first peopled the western part of Europe. This is evident from the striking similarity between their modes of worship, their objects of adoration, and the language of that ancient people, the purest dialect of which still exists in Ireland.

2. That Ireland was inhabited at a very remote period of antiquity is admitted by all impartial historians; but to pursue its early history to that extent necessary to give a clear view of this early period, would too far exceed the limits of these outlines. A few particulars must suffice.

3. Five distinct bands of adventurers had possession of Ireland at various periods before the age of Christ. We learn that it was first colonized, about 2000 years B. C., by a chief named Partho'lan, and a thousand followers. After settling the country for about three hundred years, they were swept away by a terrible plague. Then followed the Neme'dians, Fomo'rians, Fir'bolgs, and, last of all, the Mile'sians.

4. The Milesians came from the northwest of Spain; and took their name from a famous chief called Mile'sius. He

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CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the early history of Ireland? The first inhabitants? How does this appear evident?—2. What is admitted by all impartial historians?—3. What chief first colonized Ireland, and when? What other colonists followed at various periods? 4. What is said of the Milesians?

died in Spain, but his wife Sco'ta,* and her two sons, Heber and Heremon, led the colony into Ireland, and subdued the country, B. C. 1234. The Milesians thus became the ruling race, and furnished the kings of Ireland for over two thousand years.

5. The religion of the ancient Irish was similar to that of nearly all the Eastern nations. The chief object of adoration was the sun, under the name of Baal or Beal. They also adored the moon, under the title of Re. The adoration of fire, once common to all pagan nations, constituted also a part of the worship. Annually, at the time of the vernal equinox, the great festival of La Baal-tinne, or the day of Baal fire, was celebrated, and in every district of Ireland it was strictly ordered that all the fires should be extinguished, and no one was permitted to light them, under pain of death, until after the pile of the sacrifice in the palace of Tara was kindled. With the worship of fire that of water was usually associated; hence we find that certain fountains and wells were held sacred among the Irish. The pagan priests, who were held in the highest veneration on account of their learning, were called Druids.

6. Ireland, at an early period, was divided into five kingdoms, each governed by its own king, and the whole subordinate to a supreme monarch, who had, rather nominally, the control over their proceedings.† In addition to the chief king of each province, every subordinate prince, or head of a large district, also assumed the title of king, and exercised within his own dominions all the powers of sovereignty. To the right of primogeniture, so generally acknowledged in those ages, no regard was paid by the Irish. Within the circle of the relations of reigning princes, all alike were

* Scota's grave is still pointed out in a valley named after her, in the County of Kerry. It was from this lady that Ireland received the name of Sco'tia. Ireland has been known at various periods of history as Erin, Hibernia, and Scotia. It was called Hibernia by Cæsar, Pliny, Tacitus, and other Roman writers. The name of Scotia was exclusively applied to Ireland until the eleventh century, when it was transferred to Scotland, called Alba and Scotia Minor before that period. Ireland has been so named by the English during the last seven or eight centuries. See note, page 311.

† Ireland was divided into five kingdoms by the Firbolgs.

When did they arrive in Ireland?—5. What was the religion and chief object of adoration? What else? What was annually celebrated? With the worship of fire, what was associated? What is said of the priests?—6. How was Ireland divided? What is said of every subordinate prince? Of the right of primogeniture?

eligible to succeed him. The monarch himself was not only created by election, but even previous to his death a successor was chosen by the same process. From this state of things, so badly designed for the preservation of order, we may easily infer that discord frequently prevailed. The crown itself was often regarded as a prize for the strongest; hence faction pervaded all ranks of the people, from the cottage of the peasant to the palace of the supreme monarch.

7. In the long list of kings who have passed like a shadow through that dim and distant period of Irish history, extending from the Milesian invasion to the birth of Christ, the name of Ollave Fola is preëminently distinguished as a great legislator.* He began his reign 918 B. C. Many of his most useful institutions are said to have enjoyed but a short existence; but the act which renders his reign an important era in legislation was the establishment of the Triennial Convention at Tara, the ancient residence of the monarchs of Ireland.

In these periodical assemblies we observe a near approach to a representative form of government. The leading persons of the three orders, of which the political community consisted, namely, the king, the druids, and the chiefs, were convoked for the purpose of passing such laws and regulations as the public good of the nation seemed to require.

8. Among the important offices transmitted hereditary in Ireland, were those of herald, bard, and musician. To the professors of these arts, Ollave Fola assigned lands for cultivation. He also instituted at Tara a school of general instruction, which afterwards became celebrated under the name of the College of the Learned. He reigned thirty years. At the commencement of the Christian era, the Irish throne was occupied by Conary the Great, of whose reign we have but few particulars.

9. One of the most illustrious of the pagan Irish monarchs was Cormac Ulfada, who flourished about the middle of the third century. To his munificence and love of

* In Gaelic, *Ollamh Folda.*

Of the monarch himself? From this state of things what may we infer?—7. In the long list of kings, what name is distinguished? What renders his reign an important era? In these assemblies, what do we observe? Who were the leading persons?—8. What offices were transmitted hereditary? At the Christian era, who occupied the throne?—9. Who was one of the most illustrious monarchs?

learning the country was indebted, it is said, for the foundation of three academies at Tara, in the first of which the science of war was taught; in the second, historical literature; while the third was devoted to the cultivation of jurisprudence. Under his auspices a general revision of the annals of the kingdom took place; the national records, preserved in the Psalter of Tara since the days of the illustrious Ollave, were corrected and improved. According to an ancient custom of the country, no one could retain possession of the throne who was affected with any personal blemish; and as Cormac, in defending his palace against a rebellious attack, had incurred the loss of an eye, he was thereby disqualified for retaining the sovereignty. After his abdication of the regal power, Cormac retired to a humble cottage, where he devoted the remainder of his days to literary pursuits; he was succeeded on the throne by his son.

CHAPTER II

SKETCH OF EARLY CHRISTIAN IRELAND.—FROM 432 TO 1014 A. D.

NO event of importance occurs in the history of Ireland from this period until Christianity was introduced into the island by the illustrious apostle, St. Patrick.* This holy missionary, according to the most authentic accounts, was born in Britain, of respectable parentage, about the year 387. In his youth he was taken captive to Ireland, and sold to a man named Milcho, by whom he was employed in attending flocks. After six years of servitude he escaped to his native country; and having spent some time with his parents, he repaired to the celebrated monastery or college of St. Martin, near Tours, where he remained for several years, and is believed to have been initiated into the ecclesiastical state previous to his leaving that institution.

2. The attention of the Roman Pontiff had been for some time directed towards establishing the Christian faith in Ire-

* Patrick is from the Latin, and signifies noble.

To him for what is the country indebted? What ancient custom of the country is mentioned? What happened to Cormac?

CHAPTER II.—1. By whom was Christianity introduced? In his youth, what is said of him? Having escaped, where did he repair?—2. What is said of the attention of the Roman Pontiff?

land; at length Pope Celestine resolved to send a Bishop to that country, and Palladius was the person appointed for that mission. But on the death of Palladius, which happened shortly after his appointment, St. Patrick was selected to succeed him in the mission. Having been consecrated Bishop at Ebona, a town in the north of France, Patrick proceeded on his passage to the scene of his labors, and after some short delay in Britain he arrived in Ireland, as the Irish annals inform us, in the first year of the Pontificate of Sixtus III, A. D. 432.

3. The most abundant fruit followed his labors; proceeding from province to province, he preached the truths of the Gospel, and by his eloquence converted to Christianity all who heard him. He was permitted to explain the object of his mission before Laegrius, the supreme monarch of the country, at a meeting of the great council of the nation, then assembled at Tara, and numbered among his converts the chief bard and several members of the royal family. It does not appear that the monarch himself embraced Christianity, although he allowed the holy man to pursue his mission unmolested. In a few years, St. Patrick built a great number of churches and founded monasteries designed for the education of persons for the priesthood. He is said to have banished all the vipers and noxious animals from the island; but whether this be the fact or not, it is certain that they will not live in that country at the present time. The saint died at Saul on the 17th of March, A. D. 465, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. The day of his death is still held in grateful remembrance by the Irish people, no matter in what part of the earth fortune may have cast them.

4. During the sixth and seventh centuries, as well as the greater part of the eighth, literature flourished in Ireland. The fame of her institutions spread to other climes, and numbers from all parts of Europe flocked to her shores to study in her schools, while at the same time Irish scholars were invited to impart instruction in foreign countries. Hence we find that Charlemagne patronized several distinguished Irish scholars; and during the reign of Charles the Bald, the

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On the death of Palladius, who was selected? When did he arrive in Ireland?—3. What is said of the fruit of his labors? What was he permitted? In a few years, what did St. Patrick do? What is he said to have done? Where and when did he die?—4. During this period, what is said of literature? Of the fame of other institutions? Hence what do we find?

learned, though subtle, John Scotus Erigena received not only the royal patronage, but was made the intimate companion of that monarch.

5. The monastic schools of ancient Ireland were open to all. The poor and the wealthy alike had access, and paid nothing. In these noble institutions were trained an entire population of philosophers, writers, architects, painters, musicians, poets, and historians; but, above all, they turned out countless preachers and missionaries, destined to spread the light of the Gospel and of Christian education throughout Europe. Among the most celebrated of the Irish schools were Armagh, Clonard, Lismore, Bangor, Clonfert, Cashel, and Clonmacnoise. The College of Bangor at one time was attended by over three thousand students, and Armagh furnished education to seven thousand.

6. Towards the close of the eighth century, Ireland was invaded by the Danes, who continued to hold possession of the chief maritime towns of the country for more than two hundred years. During this period an almost uninterrupted series of wars were carried on between the natives and the invaders; but to follow the history of the country through that period would too far exceed our present limits. It will be sufficient to notice the great victory gained by the Irish heroes on the plains of Clontarf, where the death-blow was given to the Danish power. As this is one of the most memorable battles recorded in the Irish annals, it deserves particular notice.

7. About the year 1014, the Danes, whose chief power was concentrated at Dublin, began to make preparations for reducing the entire country. For this purpose they not only collected all their forces from the different parts of Ireland, Scotland, the Hebrides, and the Orkneys, but, moreover, brought fresh reinforcements from Denmark.* It happened at this time that the chief throne of Ireland was occupied by the famous Brian Boru. This aged and illustrious monarch, aware of the intention of the Danes, lost no time in opposing their designs; and, placing himself at the head of his

* The Danes were also assisted by Mailmora, with a body of Leinstermen.

5. What is said of the monastic schools of Ireland? Mention some of the most famous of the Irish schools.—6. What took place towards the close of the eighth century? What will it be sufficient to notice?—7. In 1014, what did the Danes do? Who at this time was the chief king? What did he do?

own forces of Munster, and joined by those of Meath, under Malachy, and by the troops of Connaught, commanded by O'Kelly, the king of that province, marched directly to the vicinity of Dublin, and took up his position on the plain of Clontarf. The Danes, confiding in the superiority of their numbers, were anxious for the engagement. At the dawn of day, on Good Friday, the 23d of April, the battle began, and raged with unceasing fury until the close of the evening, when victory declared in favor of the Irish, and the Danes were routed with immense slaughter.

8. Brian, who is said to have triumphed in fifty battles over the enemies of his country, was now destined to fall in the moment of another victory by the hand of an assassin. In the midst of the confusion and carnage that followed the retreat, Bruadair, one of the Danish chiefs, took refuge in a small wood in the vicinity of Brian's tent, and perceiving that the monarch was almost entirely unattended, and at that moment engaged in prayer with his hands upraised to heaven, rushed into the tent and plunged a dagger into the royal veteran's heart. The heroic king had reached the age of eighty-eight. Never did the power of the Danes recover from the overthrow it received on the plains of Clontarf. The blow struck on that memorable occasion by Brain was followed up by his able successor Malachy; hence we find that these enemies of Ireland gradually diminished in numbers, until at length their feeble remains are mingled with the general mass of the population, and disappear as a distinct people. In the beginning of the Norman invasion they united with the Irish.

9. Irish literature, which had been so renowned throughout the west, naturally declined from its former state of advancement during the Danish invasion. The schools and monasteries, though frequently ravaged and burnt by the Danes, again arose from their ashes, and once more resounded with the voice of instruction and prayer as the invaders retired. Hence, during the eleventh century Ireland's literary institutions became famous abroad, and her shores were visited by foreign students.

When was the battle fought, and what was the issue?—8. What is said of Brian? Relate the circumstances of his death. What is said of the power of the Danes? Of the blow struck on this occasion?—9. What is said of Irish literature? Of the schools? Of her literary institutions?

CHAPTER III

FROM THE INVASION OF IRELAND BY HENRY II, OF ENGLAND, A. D. 1171, TO THE REIGN OF JAMES II, 1685.

FROM the overthrow of the Danes, in the great battle of Clontarf, there is nothing to recount in the history of Ireland until we come to the memorable struggle which terminated in the utter extinction of her national independence, and the subjection of the country to the dominion of England. As early as the year 1155, the English king, Henry II, had conceived the design of invading Ireland; but having neither a legal right to the possession of the country, nor any ground of a quarrel to justify an invasion of it, he saw that by no other means could he plausibly attain his object than by concealing the real motive of his enterprise under a pretended zeal for the interest of religion and morality.

2. With this view he applied to Pope Adrian, an Englishman by birth, who had been lately raised to the Pontifical throne, for permission to invade and subdue Ireland for the purpose of effecting a reformation among its people. A bull, giving the requisite authority, is indeed attributed to Adrian, but the best historians are about equally divided as to its authenticity. If the Pope did issue the document, he had no right whatever to do so, as Ireland never belonged to Rome, and such an act on his part would be wholly unjust. Adrian IV, however, was a man of piety; and so long as we are without positive proof of his guilt, it is wrong to blacken his character by attributing to him the lies and base motives contained in the bull in question. After stating falsely, "that the kingdom of Ireland and every island upon which Christ, the sun of justice, shone, belong of right to St. Peter and the Holy Roman Church," the pretended bull adds, that in consideration of "an annual tribute to St. Peter of one penny from each house in Ireland," Henry might enter that country, and, for his own glory and the honor of God, eradicate vice, implant virtue, promote religion, and extend the Church.*

* Brennan, *Catechism of Irish History.*—Henry II was about the last man in the world to select for such a lofty mission. He was a descendant of Duke Robert "the Devil." His manners, morals, and temper were those of a wild man, or a demon. It is said he

CHAPTER III.—1. As early as 1155, what had Henry II conceived? What did he see?—2. With this view, to whom did he apply? What is said of Pope Adrian's bull?

But either from the internal commotion of his kingdom, or from some other cause, Henry was restrained from carrying into effect his projected invasion of Ireland for many years after he obtained the pretended grant of the country from the Pope.

3. An opportunity favorable to his ambitious views at length presented itself. Dermot, king of Leinster, having been expelled from his country on account of his crimes and cruelty, fled to England for aid. On his arrival, however, finding that the English king was absent in Normandy, he immediately sailed for that country, and threw himself at the feet of Henry, offering, if restored to his kingdom, to hold it as a vassal of the English crown. The English monarch received, without hesitation, the proffered fealty of his new liegeman, and as the only way in which he could at present forward his objects, gave him letters-patent for the purpose of raising forces in his dominions.

4. Having been thus successful in the object of his mission, Dermot hastened back to England and succeeded in interesting in his cause several persons of distinguished rank, among whom Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, surnamed Strongbow, was the most prominent; also two brothers of high rank, Maurice Fitz-Gerald and Robert Fitz-Stephen, who, like the Earl of Pembroke himself, were persons of broken fortunes and ready to embark in any enterprise, however desperate, which held out the prospect of a speedy relief. To the Earl of Pembroke, Dermot promised his daughter Eva in marriage, and to secure to him the succession to the throne of Leinster, on condition that he would raise an efficient body of men, and transport them into Ire-

violated oaths the most solemn. He was an audacious liar. Lingard tells us that while in a passion Henry's eyes were spotted with blood, and his talk was the raving of a madman, and the fury of a savage beast. While in such a degraded condition, he would sometimes tear off his clothes, roll on the floor, and gnaw anything that came within his reach. And his sons were worthy of such a father. "The custom in our family," wrote his eldest son, Richard, "is that the sun shall hate the father. To detest each other is our destiny. From the Devil we came, and to the Devil we shall go."—M.

By some authorities the pretended bull of Adrian is regarded as nothing more than the college exercise of some student.

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3. What is said of Dermot? What did he offer to Henry? How was he received by the English monarch? What did he give him? —4. What did Dermot now do? What did he promise to the Earl of Pembroke?

land during the following spring. To the two brothers, Maurice and Robert, he engaged to grant the town of Wexford and the adjoining land; while they, on their part, engaged to transport into Leinster a body of English and Welsh forces, to aid him in recovering his kingdom.

5. Being thus assured of foreign assistance, Dermot returned, probably to Leinster, where, after some short time, we find him making the most unqualified submission to Roderick O'Connor, then the chief, and the last of the Irish monarchs, renouncing the claim to the government of Leinster, requesting to be allowed only ten cantreds of that province. This specious submission was only intended to disguise his treacherous designs, as his subsequent conduct proved, until the arrival of his expected succors. In the meantime, the English adventurers hastened to fulfil their engagements, and in the month of May, during the spring of 1169, the first landing of the Anglo-Normans on the coast of Ireland, under the command of Robert Fitz-Stephen, took place.

6. The traitor, Dermot, full of joy at the welcome intelligence, instantly collected all the forces in his power and hastened to join the invaders. The first attack was made on the city of Waterford, which finally yielded to their arms. An instance of cruelty committed by the invaders about this time deserves particular notice. Seventy of the principal inhabitants of Waterford were made prisoners during the attack upon the city. Every offer was made by their fellow citizens for their ransom, even the surrender of the city itself was proffered as the purchase of their liberty. It was determined, however, by the English chieftains, to decide the fate of the prisoners in a council of war, in which the cruel advice of Henry of Mount Maurice, who thus early urged a policy which has been only too faithfully pursued by the English government to the present time, "of striking terror into the Irish," unfortunately prevailed. The unhappy prisoners were borne away to the adjacent rocks, where they were brutally put to death, by first breaking their limbs and then casting them into the sea.

What to the two brothers?—5. After some short time, what do we find him doing? What was this submission intended for? In 1169, what took place?—6. When was the first attack made? What is said of seventy of the inhabitants of Waterford? What was determined? What was their fate?

7. Subsequent to this event, the Earl of Pembroke arrived in Ireland with reinforcements, and in a short time Dublin, Waterford, and other important places fell into the hands of the English. In the meantime, the English monarch having made all the necessary preparations, embarked for Ireland, and, after a short voyage, landed at Crook, near Waterford, on the 18th of October, A. D. 1171.

The design of the king, if we may judge from some of his acts immediately after his arrival, was clearly to impress upon the minds of the people that he came rather to protect them from the oppression of others, than to acquire any advantage or possession for himself. This refined policy, combined with a total lack of a united or national spirit among the people, will account in some measure for the little resistance the royal invader met during the progress which he made through the country.

8. MacCarthy, of Desmond, was the first Irish prince who paid homage to the English king. Henry advanced at the head of his army to Lismore, and thence to Cashel, where he received the submission of Donald O'Brien, king of Thomond. The example of these faithless princes was followed by many of the inferior chiefs, who, after meeting with a courteous reception, were dismissed to their territories, laden with presents from the English monarch. From Cashel, Henry returned through Tipperary to Waterford, and after making but a short stay, marched to Dublin, a city which, from the extent of its commerce, had risen at that time to such importance as to become the rival of London.

9. Here, we are told, he was joyfully received by the inhabitants, while all the neighboring chieftains hastened to proffer their allegiance; and among the rest who now joined in the train of the English sovereign was O'Rourke, of Breffny, and finally Roderick O'Connor, who was the last chief monarch of Ireland.* In 1175, a treaty was concluded between Henry and Roderick, in which it was solemnly

* Roderick O'Connor was afterwards dethroned by his own sons, and ended his days in the monastery of Cong.

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7. What took place subsequent to this event? When and where did the English monarch land? What was the first design of the king?—8. Who was the first Irish prince that paid homage to Henry? Where did the English king now go? What is said of the example of these princes? How did Henry return?—9. Here, what are we told? Who was among the rest? In 1175, what took place?

agreed that the kings of England should be, in all future time, the lords paramount of Ireland; that the fee of the soil should be invested in them, and that all succeeding monarchs of Ireland should hold their dominions but as tenants or vassals of the English crown.

10. In 1185, Henry transferred the government of Ireland to his son John, then a youth of nineteen years of age. The foolish, insolent, profligate behavior of the young prince and his courtiers roused the indignation of the Irish chieftains, who now began to perceive, when too late, that they had intrusted their liberties to treacherous keepers, whose object was to render them not only tributaries, but slaves. Forgetting all local and personal differences, they agreed to unite against the enemies of their country; and so successful were they in their efforts, that, according to the English chronicles themselves, John lost, in his different contests with the Irish, almost the whole of his army. Henry, being informed of the danger that threatened the very existence of his power in Ireland, instantly despatched orders recalling the prince, and placed the whole power of the government, civil and military, in the hands of John DeCourcy, a man of great energy and ability.

Such is the brief outline of the establishment of the English power over the Irish nation; a power that has placed the two nations in the attitude in which we see them at present, the one subjected without being conquered; the other a ruler without being a master.

11. In 1315, Ireland was invaded by Edward Bruce, brother of the king of Scotland. He landed on the island with three thousand adventurers, and was joined by several of the Irish lords of Ulster. These chiefs convoked an assembly at Dundalk. The Scottish prince was elected king of Ireland, and crowned amid great pomp and rejoicing. After committing various devastations, a decisive battle was fought, in which Bruce was killed, and the Scots compelled to retire. Bruce's impatience was his ruin. Instead of waiting for the arrival of help from Scotland, he led his shattered regiments against the vastly superior forces of Sir

10. In 1185, what did Henry do? What is said of the behavior of the young prince? What did they agree? What did Henry do when informed of this danger?—11. What took place in 1315? Where was Bruce crowned king of Ireland? What was the cause of his ruin?

Richard Bermingham. By allowing his army to pillage the country he became unpopular.

12. In 1367, Lionel, a son of King Edward III, and governor of Ireland, held the memorable Parliament at Kilkenny, wherein the well-known Statute of Kilkenny was enacted. From its commencement, each year of English rule weighed heavier and more unjustly on Ireland. But now the natives of the country were to be trampled down, if they could not be trampled out of existence. Among the enactments of the "Statute of Kilkenny," were: (1.) Any alliance with the Irish by marriage was punishable as an act of high treason. (2.) Any Englishman taking an Irish name, or using the Irish dress or language, should forfeit all his land. (3.) The English were forbidden to admit any Irish into convents or monasteries. (4.) They were also forbidden to allow an Irish horse to graze upon their lands. The result of such a sickening and insane code was to fill unhappy Ireland with hatred, riots, and civil war. The "mere Irishman" was to be dealt with as one who had no rights in his own country.

13. In the reign of Henry VII, of England, the power of the governor of Ireland was much diminished by decreeing that no act passed, or Parliament held, without the consent of the king of England, would be deemed valid. Thus, by this measure, the Irish legislature first became dependent on that of England.

14. The tyrannical efforts of Henry VIII to introduce his new religion into Ireland utterly failed. In 1535, he appointed George Brown, as apostate priest, first Protestant Archbishop of Dublin. The royal robber also seized many abbeys, convents, and monasteries; but the faithful Irish regarded his religious schemes with horror.

15. The long reign of Elizabeth was one of continual disturbance in Ireland. The north of Ireland was the last stronghold of Irish independence. Shane O'Neill took the title of "King of Ulster." Elizabeth feared the brave old Irish prince, and, in order to obtain peace, offered him the title of "Earl of Tyrone." When the English Commissioners brought

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12. In what year was the infamous Statute of Kilkenny enacted? What were some of the clauses of this statute?—13. What occurred in the reign of Henry VII?—14. What is said of Henry VIII?—15. What is remarked of the reign of Elizabeth and the last stronghold of Irish independence? What is said of John O'Neill?

him the offer, he said: "If your mistress, Elizabeth, be queen of England, I am O'Neill, king of Ulster. I never made peace with her without having been previously solicited. I care not for the abject title of earl. My birth and family raise me above it. To no one will I yield precedence. My ancestry have been kings of Ulster. I have gained that kingdom by my sword, and by my sword I will preserve it."

Every effort was made to undermine and destroy O'Neill, and he finally perished by the treacherous and blood-stained hand of an English officer named Piers. For his services, this murderer received the sum of one thousand marks from the government.

16. Hugh O'Neill, a cousin of the murdered prince, lifted himself into power and prominence during the latter part of the reign of Elizabeth. He was a fearless and accomplished soldier, and was the first Irish leader who knew how to use policy in his dealings with the crafty English. Being goaded into rebellion, he organized a confederacy, which included nearly all the Irish princes. But his chief allies were O'Donnell, Maguire, and O'Kane. For years O'Neill baffled and defeated the armies of Elizabeth. She ratified terms with him on her death-bed. The campaigns against O'Neill cost England over fifteen millions of dollars, and the destruction of the flower of her army. The Irish also suffered immensely, as the war was carried on with reckless barbarity.

17. When James I came to the throne, he at first treated O'Neill and O'Donnell with considerable respect. He soon, however, reënacted the ferocious penal laws against Catholics, and turned his mind to the precious project of plundering the Irish chiefs of Ulster, in order to supplant them with Scottish and English adventurers. And only too well did he succeed. O'Neill and O'Donnell were forced to fly to the continent; and James confiscated three hundred and eighty-five thousand acres of the best land in Ulster. This is commonly called "the Plantation of Ulster." To this day are felt the results of the dishonesty and spoliation carried out under that soulless and grasping monarch.

How did O'Neill answer the English when they came to present him with an English title? What was O'Neill's fate?—16. Who was Hugh O'Neill, and what qualities did he possess? What did he organize? Who were his chief allies? How did this struggle end?—**17. What is said of James I and his cruel policy?**

18. The loyalty of the Irish to the ungrateful house of the Stuarts manifested itself after the execution of the unfortunate Charles I, in declaring in favoring of his son, afterwards Charles II. To quell the insurrection that followed, Cromwell was appointed to the command of the Parliament forces, and despatched to that country. After some delay at Dublin, where he landed, he determined to lay siege to Drogheda. The town was garrisoned by Sir A. Aston, with two thousand soldiers and a regiment of horse, besides several volunteers. On coming before the town, Cromwell sent a formal summons to the governor, which was peremptorily rejected, and a blockade was accordingly commenced.

19. The besiegers were delayed some time by the lack of artillery; but when the cannon arrived from Dublin, they opened a tremendous fire from their batteries, which the walls of Drogheda were unable to resist. A practicable breach was soon made, but the attempt at storming was twice repulsed with great slaughter. Cromwell rallied his men to a third attack, and placed himself at their head. The resistance was vigorous; but the Irish colonel, Wall, being killed at the head of his regiment, his soldiers surrendered the town under a solemn promise of quarter. This engagement, made by his officers, Cromwell, on entering the city, refused to ratify, and ordered the garrison to be put to the sword. The inhuman massacre was continued during the two following days. Thirty of the brave defenders of Drogheda alone survived, and these were sold as slaves.

20. Cromwell next took the city of Wexford, where all the horrors of Drogheda were renewed. The ferocious conqueror strictly forbade his soldiers to give quarter. Stafford, the governor, with some few others, escaped by swimming their horses across the river. The excuse for these awful barbarities, was the necessity, it was said, of striking immediate terror into the Irish, in order to prevent them from future opposition. After these, and similar acts of unexampled severity, the whole country submitted to the power of the Puritan Parliament.

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18. What is said of the loyalty of the Irish in favor of the Stuarts? Who was sent to the country? To what place did he lay siege? —19. On taking the town, what did Cromwell order? How many survived?—20. What city was next taken, and what was renewed? What was the excuse for these barbarities?

21. At the conclusion of the war, the greater part of the Irish nobility and gentry, with the flower of the army, had sought an asylum in foreign lands; their estates were forfeited, and the English commonwealth prepared to put into execution a system of confiscation more cruel, extensive, and complete than that which had been attempted by Elizabeth, or James I. A law was made out for the settling of Ireland, which declares, in its first clause, that it was the intention of the English Parliament "to extirpate the Irish nation."

22. In the year 1653, preparations were made to put this act into execution, and another ordinance was passed for the satisfaction of the adventurers and soldiers. By this decree the forfeited lands in the counties of Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford, in the province of Munster; King's and Queen's counties, East and West Meath, in the province of Leinster; Down, Antrim, and Armagh, in the province of Ulster, were all to be charged with the money advanced by adventurers, and to be divided among them by lot. Thus a large portion of Ireland was distributed among the followers of Cromwell and the supporters of the Parliament. In this division, the fanatical Puritans declared that they were directed by the example set by the Israelites in the division of Canaan, and believed that they were justified. Thus were the ancient Irish robbed, driven out, and displaced by an army of hungry and desperate adventurers from Scotland and England; and amid every succeeding change these new proprietors preserved a firm hold on their ill-gotten possessions.

23. That the act which gave them the lands of the kingdom was an unparalleled public robbery, and, perhaps, the most atrocious instance of unprincipled spoliation recorded in history, no one can deny. Few, however, felt any scruples at that period. The country they deemed theirs by the right of conquest—a right which they supposed to give them absolute authority over the lives and property of the vanquished. The sufferers were Catholics, and the godly had been taught to look upon them as idolaters, whose punishment was most acceptable service in the sight of Heaven. Many of the native inhabitants were kept as a bondmen and slaves to the new pro-

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21. At the conclusion of the war, what is said of the nobility and gentry? What ordinance was made out?—22. In 1653, what was done? By this decree what lands were forfeited? In this division, what did the Puritans declare?—23. What is said of the act? How did they deem the country? Who were the sufferers? What is said of many of the native inhabitants?

prietors; they were looked upon as an inferior race, a degraded caste, for whom could be felt no sympathy. The very name Irish was with them and their descendants an expression of contempt, and associated with ideas of intellectual and moral degradation. The peasants were forbidden to leave their parishes without permission, and strictly prohibited from assembling for religious worship or any other purpose. The Catholic clergy were ordered to quit the country under penalty of death; and it was, moreover, declared a capital offence to celebrate Mass, or to perform any ceremony of Catholic worship.

CHAPTER IV

FROM THE REIGN OF JAMES II TO THE REBELLION OF 1798.

NOTHING occurred in the history of Ireland of any particular importance until after the dethronement of James II. The Irish still remained firm in their allegiance to the unfortunate monarch, and unfurled the royal standard in his favor. On the 12th of March, 1688, James landed at Kinsale, in Ireland, with a small body of French forces. Proceeding immediately to Dublin, he entered the capital amidst the joyous acclamations of all classes of the inhabitants. As soon as time would permit, he convoked a Parliament to meet at Dublin. One of the first acts of this assembly was a decree granting full liberty of conscience to the professors of every religious creed.

2. On the part of King William, nothing was more anxiously desired than to bring his rival to a decisive engagement, for every day that protracted the war in Ireland added to the dangers of his situation. He, therefore, resolved to conduct the campaign in person, and arrived in Ireland on the 14th of June. James, on hearing of William's landing, hastened to join his army, which had retired from Dundalk to Drogheda, and took up his position on the southern bank of the river Boyne. The French and Irish officers labored to dissuade James from coming to an engagement on that

Of the very name of Irish? What were the peasants forbidden? What were the clergy ordered?

CHAPTER IV.—1. What is said of the history of Ireland? On the 12th of March, 1688, what took place? What did he convoke? What was one of the first acts?—2. On the part of William, what is said? What did he resolve? Where did James take up his position? What did the French officers do?

occasion. They represented to him that his numbers were inferior to those of the enemy; that the greater part of his forces were new levies; that the promised succors from France might speedily be expected; they showed how easily he could maintain a defensive warfare beyond the Shannon, until France should strengthen his force, and delay weaken that of his rival.

3. Courage had never formed any very striking feature in the character of James, but on this occasion he insisted, with so much animation, on fighting, that his officers and soldiers were persuaded that he intended to take a desperate part in the engagement, but, at the same time, with ominous precaution, he despatched Sir Patrick Trant to Waterford, in order to secure a vessel for his escape in case of misfortune. On the last day of June, 1690, William's army advanced towards the river, and the English king proceeded to take a survey of the enemy's lines from a hill which commanded an extensive prospect. Anxious, however, to gain a nearer view of the enemy, he advanced with some of his officers towards the ford opposite the village of Old Bridge, and, having spent some time in reconnoitring, sat down to refresh himself on some rising ground. While in this position several field-pieces were discharged at the spot, and as the king arose to mount his horse, a shot from one of the guns killed one of his attendants and two horses, and a second ball grazed his right shoulder, tearing the coat and inflicting a slight wound.

4. On the memorable morning of the 1st of July, 1690, William's army advanced in three columns to the banks of the Boyne. After some delay in crossing the river, the engagement became general. The conflict was sustained for some time on both sides with determined bravery. William animated his soldiers by his presence, and frequently mingled in the thickest of the contest, while James remained a passive spectator at a ruined church on the top of the hill of Donore; and he is said to have exclaimed when he witnessed the destructive charge of Hamilton's dragoons, "Spare, oh, spare my English subjects!"*

* William's forces numbered forty-five thousand picked men and sixty pieces of heavy artillery; James' army numbered only twenty-three thousand raw troops and twelve field-pieces.

3. What were his officers and soldiers persuaded? On the last day of June, what did William do? After this, what is related of him?—4. On the first day of July what took place? How was the conflict sustained? What is said of William? Of James, and what did he exclaim?

5. Before the fate of the battle was decided, James, deserting his brave and faithful soldiers, fled with precipitation to Dublin, and there falsely ascribed his defeat to the cowardice of the Irish, who, throughout the whole action, had displayed the greatest courage, and only wanted a worthy leader to have gained a triumphant victory. On their part, they justly ascribed the ill success of the day to the cowardice and incapacity of James. "Change kings," was their common cry, "and we will fight the battle over again." Making but a short stay at Dublin, James continued his flight to Waterford, and embarked for France. In the battle of the Boyne, William lost several of his ablest and most distinguished officers. The Irish lost no person of distinction except the brave and courageous Hamilton, who was taken prisoner. When brought into the presence of William, he was asked by the king if he thought the Irish would fight again; to which the intrepid general replied: "Upon my honor, I believe they will."

6. After the departure of James, the Irish leaders, thus left to themselves, for some time ably sustained the cause of their country. The operations of the Irish army were chiefly directed by the brave and patriotic Sarsfield.* During the following year, 1691, James obtained some fresh forces and military stores from Louis of France, who was still anxious to protract the war in Ireland. But the exiled monarch could not resist the opportunity of insulting his Irish subjects, even in this crisis of their fate. Although under a thousand obligations to the gallant Sarsfield, the favorite of the people, still he would not intrust him with the command of the army, but conferred it on St. Ruth, a French general of some reputation, whose subsequent conduct by no means tended to soothe the irritated feelings of the Irish general and the army.

7. The first operation of the French general was the defence of the town of Athlone, which was taken by the English after a siege of several months. After the loss of Athlone, St. Ruth retired with his army into the county of Roscommon, and having taken up a favorable position near the

* Who was killed in the service of France, in 1693.

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5. Before the fate of the battle was decided, what did James do? What was the common cry? What became of James? Whom did the Irish lose? What did he reply when asked if the Irish would fight again?—6. By whom was the Irish army chiefly directed? In 1691, what did James obtain? On whom was the chief command conferred?—7. After the loss of Athlone, where did St. Ruth retire?

ruins of the castle of Aughrim, prepared to decide the fate of Ireland by a single battle. The engagement was commenced on both sides with equal resolution. At first the fortune of the day seemed decidedly in favor of the Irish. The English were repulsed with slaughter in every onset; a few moments more must have sealed their destruction. At this critical juncture, however, St. Ruth fell by a cannon-ball shot from the enemy's battery. This unfortunate circumstance inclined the scale of victory. As the fallen general had not communicated his plan of action to any of the Irish leaders, no one was found at the moment capable of assuming the chief command. The Irish soldiers, unacquainted with the fall of their general, waited for new orders until it was too late to oppose the success of the enemy. As each troop and battalion now acted independently, their evolutions soon interfered with each other; the cavalry became mingled with the infantry, and before the close of the evening the retreat became general.

8. Before the fall of St. Ruth, the Irish had lost scarcely a man; but after that event they suffered severely. The number of the British killed and wounded was over two thousand men; that of the Irish is said to have exceeded seven thousand. General Ginckle, who commanded the British forces, was but little elated by his victory at Aughrim. He felt that it was nothing better than a fortunate escape; and from the spirit displayed by the enemy, he feared that the termination of the war was still far distant.

9. After the battle of Aughrim, the Irish forces retired to the city of Limerick, under the command of Sarsfield, who was again placed at the head of the army, although much controlled by the other leaders. As soon as time would permit, Ginckle laid siege to Limerick; but as the task of reducing the place seemed hopeless, and as both parties were weary of hostilities, it was determined to conclude the protracted war by a treaty. Accordingly, on the 23d of September, a reluctant assent to this measure was wrung from Sarsfield by the other leaders, and on the evening of the same day a cessation of arms was granted, to afford an opportunity for settling the terms of capitulation; and by the

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What did he prepare? What is said of the engagement? What was the fate of St. Ruth? What was the consequence of this misfortune?—8. What was the loss on both sides? What is said of General Ginckle?—9. Where did the Irish forces retire? What was finally determined?

3d of October, the articles of the treaty of Limerick were concluded and solemnly signed by the different authorities on both sides.

10. This celebrated treaty provided that all the Catholics should enjoy the free exercise of their religion, as in the reign of Charles II, and promised that their majesties would endeavor to procure them further security in this particular, when the Parliament should be convened. It was agreed that all the inhabitants of Limerick, all those in arms for James, should enjoy their estates and pursue their professions freely, as in the reign of Charles II, and that the Catholic gentry should be allowed to have arms, and should be required to take no oath but that of allegiance.

11. Two days after the treaty was signed, a French fleet arrived off the coast, bearing reinforcements and a large supply of military stores. Never was there a more trying moment for the Irish leaders. Supplies sufficient to insure them a triumphant victory were at hand; but the honor of their nation was pledged. The treaty of Limerick was signed; that treaty they deemed inviolable; the French fleet was dismissed, taking with it several regiments of the Irish soldiery, who preferred to pass the remainder of their days in a foreign land, rather than live in bondage at home.

12. Unfortunately for the period of which we are speaking, religious fanaticism, or insane zeal, seemed to characterize almost every proceeding. The treaty of Limerick was loudly denounced by many of the Reformed clergy, and Dr. Dopping, Protestant Bishop of Meath, after condemning the articles of that treaty, declared that Protestants were not bound to keep faith with "Papists."*

* Papist, Popish, Popery, Romish, Romanist, and Romanism are vulgar and offensive terms which were formerly applied to Catholics by their Protestant persecutors. The same malignant and uncultured spirit that produced the penal laws gave the world this mongrel brood of ragged, boorish words. It is said that "Papist" was first used as a nickname for Catholics by Martin Luther; the others had their disgraceful origin in England. But no educated speaker or writer of our day can use such outcasts; they are literary eyesores, forbidden alike by courtesy, good sense, and elegance of style. Things and persons should be called by their right names.—M.

By the 3d of October, what were concluded?—10. By this treaty, what was provided? What was agreed?—11. Two days after the treaty, what arrived? What was done with the French fleet?—12. What is said of the treaty of Limerick?

In 1695, the Irish Parliament was assembled, and the first measure of that body was to inquire into the articles of the treaty of Limerick. A committee was appointed to consider what penal laws were already in force against the Catholics, not for the purpose of repealing them, as had been promised in the treaty, but to add others to their number. An act was passed to deprive Catholics of the means of educating their children, at home or abroad, and to render them incapable of being guardians of their own, or of the children of others. A second act was passed to disarm all Catholics; and lastly, an act to banish all Catholic priests and bishops from Ireland.*

This famous treaty contained military as well as civil provisions; the former seem to have been rather carefully observed. By this convention about one thousand of Sarsfield's soldiers entered the army of William, two thousand more were given permission to go to their homes, and a number, estimated at from eleven thousand to twenty thousand, entered the service of France. From their ranks was recruited the Irish brigade.

* As even many educated persons seem to be ignorant of the brutal and atrocious character of the penal laws, we here summarize a few of them: (1.) Catholic peers were deprived of their right to sit in Parliament. (2.) No Catholic could be elected as a member of Parliament. (3.) No Catholic would be permitted to vote or to hold any office of trust. (4.) Catholics were fined $300 a month if they absented themselves from Protestant places of worship. (5.) Catholics were forbidden to keep arms, or to travel five miles from their homes. (6.) No Catholic could employ a Catholic teacher to educate his children; and if he sent his children to other lands for education, he was subject to a fine of $500, and none of the children educated abroad could inherit any property in Ireland or England. (7.) Catholic priests who came into the country were to be hanged. (8.) Any Protestant might take away a Catholic's horse by simply paying the owner $25—no matter what the real value of the animal might be. (9.) Any Catholic gentleman's child who became a Protestant, could at once take possession of his father's property. This fiendish and unchristian code disgraced the statute-books of England until seventy-two years ago.

In 1695, what took place? What committee was appointed? What penal laws were added? What is said of a Catholic teacher? Of the child of a Catholic? What rewards were offered?

CHAPTER V

FROM THE REBELLION OF 1798 TILL 1909.

EVEN a brief outline of this sad and interesting portion of Irish history can not be given in this *Compendium*. A few of the most important particulars must suffice. In 1782, Ireland, through the voice of Henry Grattan,* demanded and obtained from England, the independence of her national legislature. But it was with the utmost reluctance, and under circumstances of imperious necessity, that these concessions were made by the British cabinet. The power-loving Englishman could not avoid playing superintendent in Ireland; and in a few years the British Parliament imposed new restrictions on her trade and manufactures. This treacherous and ungenerous proceeding excited a sudden and general indignation throughout the country.

2. Among the various modes of agitation adopted during this period, was the institution of political clubs, which were formed under different titles. Of these, the United Irishmen and the Orangemen were the most conspicuous. In the month of November, during the year of 1791, the society of United Irishmen was instituted in the city of Belfast. The leading object of this association seems to have been a pure and disinterested love of liberty; it was formed with the immediate view of combining into one phalanx as many as possible of their countrymen, without any distinction of creed, for the purpose of effecting a change in the government of Ireland, or, as they themselves declared, "for the purpose of forwarding a brotherhood of affection, a communion of rights, and a union of power among Irishmen of every religious persuasion, and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legislature, founded on principles of civil, political, and religious liberty." Catholic emancipation and parliamentary reform were the avowed objects of their pursuit. By the former was under-

* See "Biography of Eminent Personages."

CHAPTER V.—1. In 1782, what did Ireland demand and obtain? What soon took place?—2. What were the most conspicuous associations? When was the society of the United Irishmen instituted? What were the leading objects of this association? What were their avowed objects of pursuit?

stood a total abolition of all political distinctions between Catholics and Protestants; by the latter, they meant to exclude the borough representation from the House of Commons.

3. To oppose the objects of the United Irishmen, the Protestant aristocracy of Ireland proceeded to array an association of their own, under the name of the Orange party, which was formed for the purpose of perpetuating the penal laws and supporting the measures of the government, by disavowing every innovation. The leading features of Orangeism may be traced to a period much anterior to this. Sir Jonah Barrington considers that the idea of the Orange society arose from the association of the aldermen of Skinner's alley, which owed its origin to the restoration of the old corporation body to their former power and privileges, after the departure of James II. Their grand festival was held on the 12th of July, the anniversary of the battle of the Boyne. The charter-toast, the antiquity of which was of so remote a date as the year 1689, was drunk by all the members present on their bare knees, the grand master pronouncing it aloud in the following words: "To the glorious, pious, and immortal memory of the great and good King William, not forgetting Oliver Cromwell, who assisted in redeeming us from popery, slavery, arbitrary power, etc." The concluding part of the toast was a tissue of vulgar and impious curses on Catholic priests, bishops, etc. This toast was afterwards adopted by the Orange association.

4. In the year 1784, a new association grew into existence, under the name of the Peep-of-the-Day Boys, which committed the most fearful depredations in the county of Armagh. In a few years, however, they dropped this title, and assumed that of Orangemen.

The first Orange lodge was formed on the 21st of September, 1795, at the house of a man named Sloan, in the village of Loughall. The members pledged themselves, by the most solemn oath, to support and defend, to the utmost of their power, the king and his heirs, so long as he or they shall support the Protestant ascendency.

What was understood by these?—3. To oppose the objects of the United Irishmen, to what did the aristocracy proceed to do? What does Sir Jonah Barrington consider? When is their grand festival held? How is the charter-toast drunk? What are the words? What was the concluding part?—4. In 1784, what took place? When and where was the first Orange lodge formed? How do the members pledge themselves?

5. In 1796, hopeless of parliamentary relief, the United Irishmen overcame their repugnance to foreign aid, and resolved to solicit the assistance of France. Theobald Wolf Tone was commissioned for that purpose, and in the course of the summer, Lord Edward Fitzgerald and Arthur O'Connor were sent over to negotiate a treaty between the French republic and Ireland. An armament carrying fifteen thousand men, with a considerable amount of arms and military stores, sailed for Ireland; but the fleet being dispersed by a violent storm, only a few vessels arrived in Bantry bay, and these returned home without being able to effect a landing.

6. In the meantime, it became the determined policy of the government to goad the Irish people by torture into a premature insurrection, before the organization of their plans could be completed. Martial law was proclaimed in several counties. Savage soldiers were encouraged to emulate one another in acts of cruelty. The eloquent and patriotic Grattan truly styled them "a banditti of murderers, committing massacre in the name of God, and exercising despotic power in the name of liberty." The tortures of whipping, half-hanging, and the pitch-cap were put into active operation.* The humble dwellings of the peasantry were burned, their sons tortured or murdered, and their daughters subjected to all the outrages of brutual passion. It was a period of cruelty and horrors unspeakable. The most liberal rewards were held out to informers. In consequence of this, the government soon became acquainted with all the proceedings of the United Irishmen, and most of the active leaders were arrested at

* These military savages of England frequently cut off the ears and noses of innocent Irish persons, who fell into their hands. Sometimes they even ran burning pitch into the eyes of their unhappy victims. A poor, harmless man, named Driscoll, was three times strangled and four times flogged, because a Catholic prayer-book was found in his possession. On account of his horrible atrocities, a sergeant of the Cork militia was called Tom the Devil, and he was only one of an army of demons in human form. When the patriotic Father Murphy was killed at Arklow, the soldiers of the ancient British regiment, says Gordon, cut open his dead body, took out his heart, roasted his remains, and oiled their boots with the grease which dropped therefrom. Such was English rule in Ireland less than a century ago!—M.

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5. In 1796, what did the United Irishmen resolve? Who were sent to negotiate a treaty? What armament sailed? What happened to the fleet?—6. What became of the policy of the government? What was proclaimed? At the same time, what was held out? What followed in consequence of this?

Oliver Bond's house, Dublin, on the 12th of March, 1798. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, who happened to be absent, eluded pursuit until the 19th of May, when, after a desperate resistance, in which he was mortally wounded, he was made prisoner. The Sheareses and others, who had been chosen to fill the places of those arrested at Bond's, were betrayed to the government by a militia captain named Armstrong.

7. On the 23d of May, the insurrection broke out in the counties of Kildare and Carlow. The peasants had no arms but clumsy pikes and a few guns in bad repair, and, of course, they were easily defeated. The insurgents were next routed at Carlow, with a loss of four hundred slain; and two hundred more, who fell into the hands of the victors, were executed by martial law. At Oulart Hill they were more successful; they defeated the North Cork militia, took the town of Enniscorthy and the city of Wexford. Here, elated by success and exasperated by the cruelties they had suffered they committed a fearful retaliation on a number of the loyalists who fell into their hands. They were again defeated at Ross and repulsed at Arklow; and the loss of the battle of Ballynahinch terminated the rebellion in Ulster.

8. After these defeats, the insurgents of Wexford were reduced to the necessity of maintaining a defensive warfare, their last hope being to protract the contest until assistance should arrive from France. Their principal encampment was on Vinegar Hill, a lofty eminence near the town of Enniscorthy. Here they determined to die or conquer. To this point, therefore, the government directed all its disposable force. The royal army of twenty thousand men, and a formidable train of artillery, approached this place in four different divisions; and on the 22d of June was fought the memorable battle of Vinegar Hill, which terminated unfortunately for the Irish forces, who were defeated with immense slaughter, not, however, for want of courage and resolution, but for the want of arms and ammunition. This disastrous engagement ended the eventful struggle of Ireland for her national rights and the redress of her countless grievances. The total loss of property during the contest is estimated at about fifteen millions of dollars. Of the royal army

7. On the 23d of May, what took place? What is said of the insurgents? Where were they more successful? What followed the taking of Enniscorthy and Wexford? Where were they again defeated?—8. Where was their principal encampment? What took place on the 22d of June? What was the total loss of property?

about thirty thousand were slain; but not less than fifty thousand of the insurgents were destroyed.

9. Late in August, when all the disturbances had been suppressed, a small force of eleven hundred men, commanded by General Humbert, arrived from France and landed at Killala. Want of means prevented Humbert from obtaining any particular advantage, and on the 8th of September he was forced to surrender. A second attempt was made by the French directory in the following month. A small squadron sent from Brest was discovered by Admiral Warren, and forced to engage at great disadvantage. The Hoche, of eighty guns, and six frigates, were captured; and this ended the efforts of France towards the liberation of Ireland. Theobald Wolf Tone was among the prisoners taken on this occasion.

10. Scarcely had the insurrection ended, when the question of the union of Ireland and Great Britain, began to be agitated. It was so decidedly unpopular, that, exhausted as the country was by the late struggle, its independence might have been maintained by an appeal to arms, had not the minister, by a wonderful mixture of corruption and cunning, effectually broken the strength of opposition. The measure of the union was rejected in the session of 1799 by the House of Commons; but after the most unparalleled scenes of bribery and deception, the measure was carried in the next session of the Irish Parliament, which then consisted of two hundred and seventy-eight, only by a majority of forty-three votes. It was on the first day of January, 1801, at the hour of noon, that the imperial united standard was for the first time mounted on the Bedford tower in Dublin, while the guns of the royal battery in Phœnix Park announced to prostrate Ireland that her national independence was no more, that her guilt-stained Parliament had effected its own annihilation. An independent country was thus degraded into a province—Ireland, as a state, was extinguished.

11. The Catholics were induced to give a sort of tacit assent to the measure, by the promise of obtaining their emancipation, a promise which was not fulfilled until nearly thirty years after this event, and then only wrung from the reluctant

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What the loss of the royal army? Of the insurgents?—9. Late in August, what arrived? What was done in the following month?—10. What now began to be agitated? What was it? When was it rejected? After what manner and by what majority was it carried in the Irish Parliament? In 1801, what was done for the first time?—11. What is said of the Catholics?

grasp of the hostile British ministry. Hopes inconsistent with such a promise were at the same time held out to the most violent Protestants; money to the amount of three millions of pounds was distributed in bribes to all those who would favor the views of the government; besides this, the enormous sum of one million two hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds was given as a compensation to boroughs for sending members favorable to the union.

12. The great evils entailed on Ireland by the union were the vast increase of her national debt and the great inequality of her representation in the imperial Parliament. By the act of the union, Ireland was to have a separate exchequer, and was only to be taxed in proporton to her own national debt, which at that time was only twenty-six million eight hundred and forty-one thousand two hundred and nineteen pounds, while that of England reached the enormous sum of four hundred and twenty million three hundred and five thousand nine hundred and forty-four pounds. In 1816, the British government thought proper to unite the English and Irish exchequers, in direct violation of the act of the union, and thus the debt of Ireland was increased to one hundred and ten million seven hundred and thirty thousand five hundred and nineteen pounds. As the Irish representatives in the British Parliament are far inferior in number to those of the English, it follows, as a matter of course, that no measure conflicting with the English interest will pass that body in favor of Ireland. Moreover, while Ireland is deprived of her national legislature, her representatives in the British Parliament are obliged to reside, a great portion of their time, in the capital of England, thus drawing from their native land a great amount of wealth which would otherwise be spent at home. This is one of the many evils which to this day retards the prosperity of that long-suffering country.

13. In 1821, George IV visited Ireland. His object was to make political capital—to delude the oppressed Catholics

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What hopes were held out to Protestants? What sum was distributed in bribes? What sum was given to boroughs?—12. What are the great evils entailed on Ireland by the union? At that time, what was the national debt of Ireland and of England? In 1816, what did the British government do? By this act, what was the debt of Ireland increased to? As the Irish representatives in the British Parliament are inferior in number to those of England, what follows? While Ireland is deprived of her national legislature, what is said of her representatives?—13. What is remarked of George IV's visit to Ireland?

with empty civilities instead of substantial concessions. But the Irish were not to be thus deceived. Daniel O'Connell, a lawyer of great ability, assumed the leadership of the Catholics. He founded the Catholic Association, which soon embraced within its circle all the friends of civil and religious liberty. The claims of an outraged people became irresistible. In 1829, the act of Catholic Emancipation passed the British Parliament. It was the work chiefly of the illustrious O'Connell,* aided by such men as Shiel and Bishop Doyle. The statute book, at last, was cleared of those ferocious enactments under which Catholics had groaned for centuries. The followers of the ancient Faith, however, were still excluded from the throne, and from the offices of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and Lord-Chancellor of England.

14. The National Repeal Association was founded by O'Connell, in 1840, for the purpose of obtaining a repeal of the union. The agitation extended itself quickly over the whole island; but the despotic government of England determined that there should be no repeal. Queen Victoria denounced the measure in a speech from the throne. A prosecution was commenced against O'Connell and other leaders of the repeal movement. They were cast into prison; but the House of Lords reversed the judgment of the lower court, and in September, 1844, the patriotic prisoners were liberated. The proceedings of the lower court were a gross outrage on justice.

15. In the midst of political contention, gaunt famine visited Ireland. The potato crop withered away mysteriously. A shout of alarm arose, and in 1847 a doomed people beheld the awful spectre of starvation. It was a stupendous calamity, and the British government was never "a friend in need" to Ireland. The unhappy people starved, died in thousands by the waysides, and hastened to foreign lands in millions. During the last half of a century fully three millions of Irish have made their homes in the United States.

* See "Short Biographies of Eminent Personages."

Of Daniel O'Connell? What did he found? What act was passed in 1829? Of what was the statute-book cleared?—14. What is said of the Repeal Association? Of English government and the queen? What happened to the leaders?—15. What is said of famine? What became of the people? How many Irish came to the United States during the last third of a century?

16. This wonderful people, whose faith, bravery, genius, and sufferings are known the world over, are to-day struggling for home rule. A cause so just deserves the success that now seems assured. It was championed by William E. Gladstone, the foremost Englishman of the day, and one of the most remarkable men of this era. He it was, who, in 1869, carried the act for the disestablishment of the Church—that is, of the Church of England established in Ireland. He it was who, in 1870, carried his second great measure of reform for Ireland, the Land Act, whereby landlords are to pay damages to evicted tenants, and compensate them for improvements they have made. In 1886, he introduced into Parliament his Home Rule bill, to secure to Ireland a Parliament of its own for the regulation and administration of local affairs. It failed of passage. The Gladstone ministry fell, Lord Salisbury becoming premier.

17. Mr. Gladstone had a brilliant and able lieutenant in Charles Stewart Parnell. It was Mr. Parnell, who, after the death of Isaac Butt, reorganized and led the Home Rule Irish party, otherwise known as Nationalists. And he made his Irish party a ruling power in the House of Commons. Most unhappily, Mr. Parnell became involved in a scandal which impaired his personal influence, and divided the Irish members of Parliament. His death (1891) was followed rather by a deepened factional bitterness, and the cause of Ireland seemed almost lost—at least for this generation. But affairs have taken on, recently, a brighter look. The Irish factions gradually drew towards each other. A sense, too, of justice to Ireland had impressed itself on the English mind. Mr. Gladstone, in 1892, became premier again, distinctly on the Home Rule issue; and early in the following year he again introduced a Home Rule bill. After long debate it passed the Commons; but the House of Lords rejected it by an overwhelming majority. A general election was held in July, 1895, in which the Home Rulers, in spite of their quarrels, made some gains in Ireland. But the Liberals were badly defeated in England. The Tories then returned to power. They,

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16. What are the Irish people now struggling for? Who is their champion? What has Mr. Gladstone done for them?—17. By whom was he greatly aided? What party did Mr. Parnell organize? When did he organize the Nationalist party? Aided by whom? What misfortune befell Mr. Parnell? Its immediate effect on Home Rule? The status of Home Rule now? What of the Home Rule bill of 1893? Of the general election of 1895?

in 1896, passed an Irish Land Act, still more favorable to the tenant farmers than all previous legislation. In September of the same year a great Irish race convention was held in Dublin, and since then factional feeling has considerably abated. The Home Rule party was reunited in 1899, and regained its former parliamentary strength in the general election of 1900.

An Irish Local Government Act, passed by Parliament in 1898, went into effect in April, 1899, and resulted in a bloodless revolution. The Nationalists gained control of the local affairs in every county outside of Ulster.

Early in 1900 the queen visited Ireland and remained some time in Dublin.

After an experience of nearly all the vicissitudes of fortune, Ireland seems to be entering upon an era of prosperity. This is seen in its improved economic condition. The product of the coöperative system of dairy farms is becoming an important export; there has been a marked extension of the flax culture. Shipbuilding, already an important industry, seems destined to further development. For individual output a Belfast firm stands, or very recently stood, first in the world. These conditions explain the very great increase of deposits in the joint stock banks. British writers assert that the political condition and the social condition are not so favorable as the economic. The cause of this, they allege, is the influence of the United Irish League. However great may be the influence of this association, and however injurious to the repose of the country may be its policy, there stands out the conspicuous fact that Ireland is remarkably free from crime. Her people, too, are better housed, better clothed and better educated than they have been for generations. In the past some concessions have been extorted from the fears, or from the difficulties of England. In that country, however, a more enlightened policy has been winning its way, and now there appears to be a disposition to do tardy justice to Ireland.

One of the measures, the Irish University Act, recently passed by the imperial Parliament, establishes in Dublin a

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What Irish act was passed in 1896? What great event took place in Dublin that year? Result of the Irish Local Government Act? What is said of Ireland's outlook? Mention the signs of economic prosperity. What is the English criticism of Irish social and political life? What conspicuous fact contradicts the alleged evil influence of the United Irish League? What more just policy has been gaining ground in England?

new University, which in reality will be the University for which Irish Catholics have long been struggling. The act provides also for the establishment of a similar institution in Belfast. Under the law, both, of course, are non-sectarian. The latter, nevertheless, will be a Protestant university, while the former will be Catholic. Just at this moment, April, 1909, the place that the Gaelic language will occupy in the curriculum of the Dublin institution is being discussed in a very animated way. The mere establishment of a university, indeed, will be of little value to the Catholic, or to any other element of the population in Ireland; it is from its enlightened administration that benefits will flow. As the question of its management lies entirely in the future, history cannot yet regard the foundation as an unmixed blessing. The idea of higher education for all the people of Ireland, however, is an attractive one, and from its realization much good is seriously to be expected.

With the Irish Land Purchase Act of 1903, it is different. This just and generous measure has already passed the experimental stage, and makes it possible for the farmers of Ireland to own in the not distant future every rood of land that they cultivate. Under the old and iniquitous system, the tenant farmer had almost no motive to industry. If he drained and reclaimed for cultivation an area of swamp, he merely succeeded in increasing the value of his holding, and thereby increased his rent. Under the recent law, the government assists the tenant in purchasing from his landlord the fee of his farm.

No one can foresee all the benefits to Ireland of this enlightened policy. In the administration of the law, it is true, it is possible to deprive the people of some of the intended advantages. The work of buying out the landlords is making rapid progress. To illustrate its magnitude, it is sufficient to state that in a bill introduced November 23, 1908, into Parliament, Mr. Birrell, Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, declared that, "to carry out the proposals as to land purchase, £52,000,000 were required for

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Name two universities recently established in Ireland. What is the religious complexion of each? What is it that makes a university beneficial to a people? What is said of the idea of a university for all the people of Ireland? When was the Land Purchase Act passed? Is it in the experimental stage? What is its ultimate object? How may some of its benefits be lost? What is the magnitude of the work?

pending agreements, and £100,000,000 more would be needed in the future."

18. "Every remarkable man," wrote Lacordaire, "has been fond of letters;" and the same can be said of every remarkable nation. The Irish have always been a literary people. To song, and legend, and history they have clung, through sunshine and shadow, with the same lofty tenacity as to Faith and Fatherland. No misfortune has been able to dull the Irish mind, however it may have checked its expression. During the last one hundred and fifty years English literature has been enriched by Swift, Steele, Goldsmith, Burke, Sheridan, Grattan, Doyle, Griffin, Banim, Davis, O'Connell, Shiel, Moore, Lever, O'Curry, MacHale, and other Irish writers.

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18. What is said of the Irish as a literary people? Name some Irish writers of the last century and a half.

BOOK X

SPAIN

CHAPTER I

ITS EARLY HISTORY.

AT an early period Spain was called Hesperia, or Western, because it was the most western country known to the ancients. It was also distinguished by the name of Iberia, from the river Iber, now Ebro. Its present name, Hispania, or Spain, is said to be derived from a Phœnician word which signifies abounding in rabbits, as these animals, according to Strabo, were formerly very numerous in this country. The original inhabitants were the Celts, the same race that peopled most of the other countries of western Europe, although the Spanish historians refer the origin of their nation back to the days of Tubal, the son of Japhet.

2. Attracted by the fertility of the soil, the Phœnicians, who were among the earliest navigators, passed over to Spain and built the city of Cades, now Cadiz, as early as the year 900 before the Christian era. The Phœnicians were displaced by the Carthaginians shortly before the first Punic war, and the Carthaginians, in their turn, were expelled from the country by the Romans, in whose power it remained until it was wrested from them by the irruption of northern barbarians. For three centuries it was the richest province of the Roman empire. The Gothic princes held possession of Spain until near the middle of the eighth century, when their empire was overthrown by the followers of Mohammed, or the Saracens.

CHAPTER I.—1. What was Spain early called? What is said of its present name? What were the original inhabitants?—2. Who passed over to Spain? When? By whom were the Phœnicians displaced? What is said of the Gothic princes?

3. These victorious Infidels—known also in Spain by the name of Moors—in a few years possessed themselves of nearly the whole country, which was for some time governed by the viceroy of the Saracen Caliphs. At the approach of the invaders, the Goths retired to the mountainous district of Asturias, where, under their leader, Don Pelagio, they established a kingdom, which increased in power and gradually extended over other parts of the country. Spain was divided by the Moors into a number of separate states, of which the most considerable were those of Cordova and Granada. For some centuries the history of Spain presents a continual series of contests between the Moors and the Christians. During this long, protracted struggle with the Infidels, several distinct Christian kingdoms grew into existence, of which Castile, Leon, Arragon, and Navarre were the most important.

CHAPTER II

MODERN SPAIN.—FROM A. D. 1479 TO 1909.

IN the year 1479, Ferdinand II, king of Aragon, formed a matrimonial alliance with Isabella, queen of Castile and Leon, and thus their kingdoms became united. Navarre was subsequently conquered, and, of all the Moorish possessions in Spain, the kingdom of Granada alone remained. Attracted by the beauty and fertility of the country, and impelled by a desire of expelling the determined enemies of Christianity, Ferdinand and Isabella formed the project of reducing Granada. Having made the necessary preparations, they entered the country at the head of their united armies, and, after meeting with a gallant resistance from Abdali, the Moorish king, Granada was taken and the Moors expelled. The fall of Granada terminated the Saracen empire in Spain after the followers of Mohammed had held possession of it for over seven centuries. For the first time, the whole country was united into one monarchy.

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3. What were the infidels named? At their approach, what did the Goths do? How was Spain divided? During the struggle, what grew into existence?

CHAPTER II.—1. In 1479, what took place? What is said of Navarre? What did Ferdinand and Isabella do? What did the fall of Granada terminate?

2. Ferdinand and Isabella, having at length subdued and expelled the enemies of their country, turned their attention to the internal improvement of their kingdom. Rapine and outrage, the natural consequence of the long and sanguinary war that had desolated the country, prevailed in every quarter. These evils they labored to remove, and by a wise and well regulated policy they succeeded in restoring order and tranquillity throughout their dominions. It was during this period, and under the patronage of Isabella, that the great Christopher Columbus discovered America, an event which added immense wealth and possessions to the Spanish monarchy, and raised it for a time above any other in Europe.

3. In 1517, Charles I succeeded to the Spanish throne. On the death of Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, he put forward his claim to the imperial crown; and at the same time, Francis I, king of France, declared himself a candidate for the empire. The crown had previously been offered by the electors of Germany to Frederick, Duke of Saxony, who declined the offer, and recommended the Spanish monarch as the most suitable person on whom it could be conferred. Charles was accordingly elected Emperor in 1520, and assumed the title of Charles V. He now became the most powerful sovereign of Europe. His dominions extended over Spain, Germany, the Netherlands, and a part of Italy, besides his colonial possessions in America.

4. The reign of Charles was almost one unbroken series of hostilities, chiefly with his famous rival, Francis I, of France. A few years previous to his death he formed the extraordinary resolution of resigning his dominions to his son, Philip, who had married Queen Mary, of England. Accordingly, in the presence of a numerous assembly at Brussels, having previously enumerated the principal events of his reign, he solemnly resigned his throne and transferred the sovereign authority to his son, Philip, with so much parental affection that the whole assembly melted into tears. After this he retired, attended only by a few domestics, without pomp or splendor, to the monastery of St. Just, near Piacenza. In this humble and peaceful abode one of the

2. To what did they turn their attention? During this period what took place?—3. In 1517, who succeeded to the throne? On the death of Maximilian, what did Charles do? When was he elected emperor? What is said of his dominions?—4. What is said of the reign of Charles? What resolution did he form? Where did he retire?

THE
SPANISH KINGDOMS
And their European dependencies
under Charles the Fifth
Mussulmans
Navarre
Castile and Leon
France
Portugal
ENGLAND
The Hague
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Antwerp
Ghent
Liege
Flanders
Schmalkald
Luxemburg
LORRAINE
Paris
St. Cloud
Longjumeau
Augsburg
Danube
FRANCE
D. BURGUNDY
SWITZERLAND
Milan
Venice
Ravenna
Parma
Bologna
Florence
Pisa
Elisa
Orange
Albi
Toulouse
Carcassonne
Aix
Marseilles
Narbonne
Perpignan
Oviedo
Compostella
ASTURIAS
Burgos
NAVARRE
Pampeluna
Bayonne
CASTILE
Portucale
Zaragoza
CATALONIA
Barcelona
CORSICA
Rome
TUSCANY
ELBA
Amalfi
Salerno
Otranto
Madrid
Toledo
Valencia
Lisbon
Guadiana
Tagus
MAJORCA
MINORCA
SARDINIA
Cordova
Jaen
Seville
Malaga
Granada
Carthagena
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
Syracuse
Gibraltar
Ceuta
Tangier
Algiers
Oran
Tunis
MALTA
Lepanto
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most famous monarchs of the world ended his days. The manner in which he closed his eventful life was extraordinary. A short time previous to his death, stretching himself in a coffin, he caused the funeral rites to be performed, and, after the ceremony was over, he retired to his apartment in the deepest melancholy. He was soon after seized with a violent fever, which terminated his life, in the fifty-eighth year of his age; thus died Charles V, one of the great rulers of modern times.

5. Philip II succeeded his father on the throne of Spain. The most important events of his reign were the revolt of the Low Countries,* which, after a long and bloody contest, succeeded in establishing their independence; and his unsuccessful invasion of England, in 1588, which ill-conducted measure cost him the ruin of his vast fleet, called the Invincible Armada. He was succeeded on the throne by his son, Philip III. The subsequent history of Spain affords but few events of interest or importance until the reign of Ferdinand VII, who, in 1808, wrested the sceptre from his father, and placed himself upon the throne. He had not, however, long enjoyed the usurpation, when both father and son were compelled to resign their claim to Napoleon, Emperor of France, who placed his brother Joseph upon the Spanish throne. The Spaniards rose in opposition to this tyrannical measure, and had recourse to England for assistance, and, by their united efforts, the French were finally expelled from the peninsula, A. D. 1813.

6. In 1812, the Spanish Cortes, assembled at Cadez, completed a new constitution for the kingdom. Ferdinand VII, being set at liberty by Napoleon, whose star of fortune was now on the decline, was invited by the Cortes to take an oath to support the new constitution. He declined. An insurrection, however, broke out in 1820, and the king was compelled to proclaim the constitution of 1812. A ministry was formed; a free press established, and the Inquisition suppressed. These new and forced measures were evidently not to the taste of Ferdinand, as, only three years later, he called in the assistance of a French army, and, after a short struggle, his unruly Cortes restored him to absolute power.

* Now Holland and Belgium.

How did he close his eventful life?—5. Who succeeded? What were the most important events of his reign? By whom was he succeeded? What is said of the subsequent history of Spain? What did the Spaniards do?—6. What is said of the Cortes and King Ferdinand? What occurred in 1820? What three years later?

It was during this reign that Florida was sold to the United States for five million dollars. The attempts to reconquer the revolted Spanish colonies in America proved a miserable failure; and, in 1826, Spain lost her last hold on the mainland of the New World.

7. The king abolished the Salic law in 1830, in consequence of which his daughter, Isabella, became heir to the throne in place of his brother, Don Carlos. This soon became the cause of countless troubles and insurrections. The death of Ferdinand VII, in 1833, was the signal for a general civil war. Don Carlos was proclaimed king in the north of Spain, and was supported by the country people and a majority of the clergy. But the queen regent, who ruled during the minority of her daughter, had a powerful following. She appealed to France and England, and a British force hastened to her assistance. It was only after an unfortunate struggle of seven years that the Carlists were overpowered, and Don Carlos fled to France. In 1843 the Cortes declared the young queen of age, and she took her seat on the shaky throne as Isabella II. Three years later she married. On account of numerous piracies, Spain declared war against Morocco in 1859, and an army, under Marshal O'Donnell, defeated the Moors. A treaty of peace was signed, and the Sultan of Morocco agreed to pay four hundred million reals and to cede large portions of territory to Spain. The troubled reign of Isabella II came to an end in 1868. The insurgent army defeated the royal forces at Alcolea in 1868, and the queen fled to France. A provisional government was established. The dissatisfied Spaniards cast an anxious glance over Europe for a suitable candidate to fill their vacant throne, and this search was the indirect cause of the Franco-Prussian war.

8. In 1870, however, the Cortes elected the second son of Victor Emmanuel, and he was declared sovereign under the title of Amadeus I. The young king did his best to rule the country as a constitutional monarch, but failed utterly, and had the good sense to abdicate in 1873. A Carlist insurrection also added to the miseries of distracted Spain. A republic, however, was established, and three presidents followed each other in rapid succession. The efforts of the

What did Spain sell and lose in America during this reign?—7. What was abolished in 1830? What war occurred on the death of Ferdinand? Who became ruler in 1843? What happened in 1859? In 1868?—8. Who became king in 1870? What followed?

government to put down the Carlists were unsuccessful. Change followed change, until, in 1875, Alfonso, son of the exiled Isabella II, was called to the throne, and proclaimed king. He suppressed the Carlist insurrection, and under his rule peace was happily restored to Spain.

9. The year 1880 is notable for a law passed by the Cortes, providing for the gradual abolition of slavery in Cuba. In 1885, King Alfonso died, his widow, Christina, becoming regent, with Sagasta as premier. The next year the queen-dowager gave birth to a son, who is now (1909) king, having been crowned as Alfonso XIII. Spain's internal repose of late years has been disturbed more or less by the adherents of republican and anarchistic ideas, in the interest of which the prime minister, Canovas del Castillo, was assassinated in August, 1897. Soon afterwards Sagasta again came into power.

From early in 1895 Spain had to contend with formidable insurrections in the two chief colonial possessions left to her, namely, Cuba and the Philippines. That in the latter had temporarily subsided, but broke out again in the beginning of 1898. As that in Cuba led to war with the United States, resulting in the loss of both colonies to Spain, this subject is discussed in connection with the history of the former country.

10. **Progress, Government, and Literature.**—In spite of countless internal disturbances, the present century has witnessed great material progress in Spain. Since 1851 the onward movement of the nation has been as rapid as that of any of the great European powers. The population has greatly increased. The first railroad was opened in 1848. It extended from Barcelona to Mataro, a distance of only eighteen and a half miles. Now railways are numerous. Agriculture, commerce, and manufactures are carried on with activity and success. The system of public instruction is well organized. Spain has ten universities, the best known of which are those of Madrid, Granada, Barcelona, and Salamanca.

The form of government, which has undergone many changes during this century, is now a constitutional mon-

8. Who was called to the throne in 1875?—9. How is 1880 notable? Who died in 1885? What followed? Who is now king? How has Spain been disturbed of late years? What tragic event occurred in 1897? What of Spain's chief colonies? 10. What is said of the progress of Spain? Government?

archy. The Cortes is divided into an upper house, or senate, and a chamber of deputies. Every senator must be a man of position, forty years of age, and a Spaniard by birth. The congress, or lower house, is renewed every three years. It is composed of one deputy to every forty thousand of the population. The Cortes is in session for at least four months of every year.

When Spain lost her colonial empire in the war with the United States, it was predicted that, so great a source of distraction having been removed, there would be noticed a marked improvement in the condition of her internal affairs. Since that event took place, however, ten years have passed, and an efficient administration of government appears almost as distant as before.

In 1901, there was considerable anti-clerical agitation as well as considerable opposition to the settlement in Spain of members of the religious orders expelled from France. During the ceremonies of the Easter week the processions were attacked; on the occasion of a procession at Saragossa blood was shed. Toward the end of the year a disturbance occurred at the christening of the Infanta. In a word, the feeling against the clerical party is one of great bitterness. In the course of some angry debates upon Spanish interests, it was said by some of the friends of the clergy, that the splendid colonial empire of Spain, founded by Catholics, had been lost by Free Masons.

Diplomatic relations were resumed with the United States in 1899, when the Queen Regent ratified the treaty between the two powers. Afterward, the subject of education began to receive much attention. In August, 1904, was signed a royal decree enforcing Sunday rest; cafés, taverns and theatres were thenceforth required to have special licenses. Sunday newspapers and bull-fights were prohibited.

The year 1902 was marked by an increase of industrial and agricultural strikes. At Barcelona the strikers burned factories. To the number of eighty thousand they placed themselves at the disposal of their leaders. As might have been expected, conflicts between the police and the people became frequent, and for a week there was a street war.

What was expected when Spain lost her colonial empire? Was that expectation realized? What is said of the anti-clerical feeling in Spain? How did the friends of the clergy criticise the Spanish government? What reforms were proposed in 1904? What has been the industrial condition?

As early as 1900, Catalonia became the headquarters of a royalist insurrection; thence it extended to the northern provinces. The following year was marked by feverish unrest. The Carlists were importing arms, and in several important provinces a state of siege prevailed. During the summer, there were riots in Barcelona.

As the end of the regency of Donna Maria Christina approached, the political situation became more and more confused. In 1903, there was distress among the agricultural laborers of the South. In the April elections ballot-boxes were broken open, and there were pugilistic encounters even in the halls of legislation. The peasants of the *huertas* were dying of hunger while cultivating the richest lands in Spain. For relief, the government began building railroads. In 1904, there arrived from France and the Philippine Islands great numbers of monks. During the year 1905 the elements of revolution and disaster appeared to increase in strength. The attempts to assassinate public officials became more frequent; there were troubles in Andalusia, and bloodshed at Cadiz. Starvation continued in the south, and the government continued its policy of opening public works to give temporary relief. Though there was rioting at the April elections of 1907, and some ballot-box smashing, the general situation showed signs of improvement. At the present time, 1909, the country seems to be enjoying a state of repose.

The literature of Spain is rich and varied. From the sixteenth to the eighteenth century, among a host of writers, we find the names of the famous lyric poets Leon and Herrera; the great dramatists Vega and Calderon, and Cervantes, the immortal author of "Don Quixote." Among the best known Spanish writers of the present age are Balmes, Donoso Cortes, Ulloa, Munoz, and Castelar.

What was the condition of Catalonia in 1900? What new troubles arose in 1903? What was the condition of the peasantry? What system of relief was undertaken by the government? What signs of anarchy were noticeable in 1905? What is the present state of Spain? Literature?

CHAPTER III

THE INQUISITION.

CONNECTED with the history of Spain there is one institution that claims a passing notice, namely, the Inquisition. This institution was established in different countries of Europe, chiefly for the purpose of preventing innovations in the established religion of the realm. Its origin is dated as far back as the Council of Verona, held in the year 1184; although it was not legally established until the year 1233, in virtue of the bull of Gregory IX, addressed to the Provincial of Toulouse, and the superintendence of it at that period was confided to the Order of the Dominicans, about twelve years after the death of their founder, St. Dominic. But it was only in the year 1484 that the constitutional rules and order of the tribunal were drawn up and published by Cardinal Torquemada, in conjunction with the king of Spain.

2. Towards the close of the twelfth century, the Albigenses seemed to threaten the peace of the Church and the stability of the State, and, for the security of both, it was deemed expedient to send among them certain ecclesiastical commissioners, to inquire into the nature of their errors, and to endeavor to reclaim them. These commissioners were called Inquisitors, and from them the institution derived its name. It does not appear that the early inquisitors ever made use of any other arms to oppose the progress of heresy than those of prayer, patience, and instruction, and, while it remained purely an ecclesiastical tribunal, no coercive measures were ever adopted.

3. In the process of time, the various sovereigns of Europe passed severe laws against all those who promulgated or obstinately maintained doctrines contrary to those established in their respective dominions; but as the offences in those cases were always of a religious nature, it became necessary to refer the accused to ecclesiastical judges. Hence

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CHAPTER III.—1. Why was the Inquisition established? What is said of its origin? What took place in 1484?—2. What is said of the Albigenses? What was deemed expedient? What were the commissioners called? What does not appear?—3. In the process of time, what was done by the sovereigns of Europe? What became necessary?

it was that the tribunal of the Inquisition was adopted in different countries, when it ceased to be ecclesiastical, and became a civil tribunal.

4. The following circumstances led to its establishment in Spain: Towards the end of the fifteenth century, the Mohammedan power in that country was destroyed by the united effort of Ferdinand and Isabella. The Moors were expelled. Many, however, remained, and those so mingled with the Spanish population that it became difficult to discriminate between them. Their well-known hostility to the government and aversion to Christianity caused them to be an object of continual alarm. To augment the danger, the power and influence of the Jews, at this period, in Spain, became exceedingly great; and they finally broke out into open rebellion. The Cortes now demanded that severe and coercive measures should be adopted against them; and, as the danger increased, Ferdinand conceived that, in order to save Spain, nothing would contribute more effectually than the Inquisition. To this measure Isabella at first strongly objected; but at length she was induced to assent, and the institution was accordingly introduced about the year 1484.

5. The tribunal was composed of one supreme head, called the Inquisitor-General, who was either a Bishop or an Archbishop, and of eight ecclesiastical counsellors, of whom six were always seculars, and two regulars, one invariably of the Dominican Order. The inferior inquisitors possessed no power to do anything without the approbation of the Inquisitor-General; neither could the latter execute any measure without the concurrence of supreme council. The duty of the tribunal of the Inquisition was simply to determine, upon the clearest evidence, whether the individual arraigned before it was guilty or not of those charges declared capital by the civil law. If guilty, the sentence was given accordingly. Beyond this, the Inquisitors had nothing whatever to do with the accused, who was then left to the secular power, to be dealt with according to the laws that the State had ordained. The ecclesiastics, who composed the tribunal of the Inquisition, had no power to condemn

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Hence what followed?—4. What circumstances led to its establishment in Spain? What did the Cortes demand? What is said of Isabella?—5. Of what is the tribunal composed? What is said of the inferior inquisitors? What was the duty of the tribunal? What is said of the ecclesiastics who composed the tribunal?

any one to death, and on no occasion do we find the name of any priest inscribed on a warrant for an execution.

6. The Inquisition could not be introduced into any country without the consent of the government; and when once established, it was generally under the immediate control of the sovereign. The king alone appointed the Inquisitor-General, who, in his turn, nominated the particular inquisitors, subject to the approbation of the king. In different countries various punishments were inflicted on those declared guilty of capital offences by the tribunal of the Inquisition. At Rome no one was ever known to have suffered death in consequence of any sentence coming from the Inquisitorial tribunal. In Spain the cruel torture of burning to death was the usual punishment inflicted on those who obstinately maintained and promulgated erroneous doctrines, or adopted them again after having renounced them. The property of the persons thus condemned was confiscated to the State. The other punishments were less severe, and consisted of some slight penance or temporary confinement. If, however, the accused recanted what was thought to be heterodox opinions, and gave signs of repentance, his trial immediately ceased, and no punishment was inflicted.*

* For a detailed account of this institution, see *Letters on the Inquisition*, by Count de Maistre.

6. What is said of the Inquisition? Of the king? What is said of the punishments inflicted in different countries? At Rome? In Spain? What was done with the property of condemned persons? If the accused recanted, what was done?

BOOK XI

ITALY

CHAPTER I

FROM THE FALL OF THE EMPIRE OF THE WEST TO THE DEATH OF POPE GREGORY VII.—A. D. 476 TO 1085.

AFTER the downfall of the Roman Empire of the West, in 476, the Heruli overran Italy and conquered the country. But their kingdom was of short duration. In the brief space of thirteen years, Theodoric, the king of the Ostro-Goths,* or Eastern Goths, invaded Italy, defeated and slew Odoacer, the king of the Heruli, and usurped his dominions, A. D. 493.

Theodoric, commonly called the Great, fixed his residence at Ravenna. He was an Arian in belief, but tolerated his Catholic subjects; his administration of the government showed him to have been a prince of great ability. He died after a reign of thirty-three years.

2. Italy was wrested from the power of the Goths about the middle of the sixth century, by Belisarius and Narses, the generals of Justinian, and again annexed to the Eastern Empire, of which Constantinople was the capital. It next fell into the hands of the Lombards. Alboinus, the Lombard king, invaded Italy, and was proclaimed king of the country about the year 568. Their sovereignty in Italy lasted for about two hundred and six years, under the reign of twenty-two successive kings.

* In history, the Goths are distinguished as the Ostro-Goths, or Eastern Goths, from the Visi-Goths, or the Western Goths.—M.

CHAPTER I.—1. When and by whom was Italy conquered? What did Theodoric do? Where did he fix his residence? What was he? —2. By whom was Italy wrested from the Goths? Into whose hands did it next fall? Who invaded the country? How long did their kingdom last?

3. About the year 754, Desiderius, or Didier, king of the Lombards, took Ravenna and carried his victorious arms to the walls of Rome. In this emergency, Pope Stephen sent to implore assistance from Constantine, the Greek Emperor, in whose name the government of Rome was still exercised. But the Emperor was at that time too much engaged in religious disputes to think of sending his troops against the Lombards. In this extremity, the Romans embraced the last resource which was left them, that of calling to their assistance Pepin, king of France. Pepin readily accepted the invitation; but before any act of hostility, deputies were sent to Astolphus, the king of the Lombards, to request that he would renounce his ambitious views. The fierce Lombard only answered the deputies with threats and insults.

4. Pepin immediately crossed the Alps and marched his army into Italy, defeated the Lombards, and compelled them to conclude a treaty of peace on terms offered by the conqueror. Scarcely, however, had the French king departed, when the perfidious Lombard recommenced hostilities, and laid siege to Rome. Again Pope Stephen had recourse to his royal protector, and Pepin once more crossed the Alps, and obliged Astolphus to accede to a second and more humiliating treaty. The French monarch, before he returned to his own dominions, made a solemn grant of his conquered territories in Italy to Pope Stephen, and his successors in the Pontifical chair, thus raising the head of the Christian Church to the dignity of a temporal sovereign, A. D. 755. The territories thus bestowed were called the Ecclesiastical States. This grant was afterwards confirmed by the celebrated Charlemagne, the successor of Pepin, who completely destroyed the Lombard kingdom in Italy, after it had lasted for two hundred and six years, A. D. 774.

5. The republic of Venice first grew into notice during the ninth century. The Venetians were for a considerable time the leading commercial people of Europe. Florence became a republic in the thirteenth century, and maintained its independence for upwards of two hundred years. Genoa

3. In 754, what took place? What did Pope Stephen do? What is said of the emperor? Whom did the Romans now call to their assistance? What was done first?—4. What did Pepin immediately do? After his departure, what was done by the Lombards? What did Pepin again do? Before his return, what grant did he make? What are these territories called? What was done by Charlemagne?—5. What are the principal states of Italy? What is said of the Venetians? Of Florence?

became a republic in 953, and was long distinguished for its commerce. The little republic of San Mari'no is distinguished for its great antiquity, and for the purity of its republican principles. When the Pope was a temporal sovereign, it was under his immediate protection. It occupies a tract of only forty square miles, with a population of about seven thousand five hundred. They are noted for their morality, patriotism, sobriety, industry, and hospitality. San Marino has retained its independence for more than thirteen hundred years, and is so jealous of its liberties that the laws require the magistrates to be semi-annually elected.

6. During the Pontificate of Gregory VII, a serious altercation took place between him and Henry IV, Emperor of Germany. It seems that it had been the custom in various countries for the emperors to put the newly elected Bishops and Abbots in possession of their benefices by giving them the ring and the crosier, the symbols of their pastoral authority. But as this ceremony, called investiture, seemed to imply the conferring of spiritual jurisdiction by temporal princes, it was considered an encroachment on the rights of the Church. The Emperor Henry, however, besides exercising this privilege, carried on a shameful traffic in ecclesiastical dignities, bestowing them not on the most worthy, but on those who offered him the largest sums of money. Against these abuses, Pope Gregory loudly protested; but his entreaties and expostulations were disregarded. Henry, instead of reforming his conduct, convoked an assembly at Worms, in which, with the aid of a body of schismatical associates, he presumed to pass sentence of deposition against the Pontiff, A. D. 1076.

7. Upon receiving intelligence of this outrageous act, Gregory proceeded to put into execution the fullest extent of his power. With the advice of a numerous Council, taking into consideration the obduracy of Henry, and the repeated complaints of his oppressed subjects, the Pope excommunicated him, and pronounced the monarch fallen from his royal dignity; at the same time he declared the Germans

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What is said of Genoa? For what is San Marino distinguished? Under whose protection? How long has it maintained its independence?—6. During the Pontificate of Gregory II, what took place? What had been a custom in various countries? What was this ceremony called? What was done at the assembly at Worms?—7. Upon receiving the intelligence, to what did Gregory proceed? With the advice of a numerous council, what did he do?

no longer bound by their former oaths of allegiance to him. Singular as the power may appear which Gregory exercised on that occasion, still, it was admitted by his contemporaries that such power lay within the sphere of the papal jurisdiction, and it was supported by the civil and common jurisprudence of that age. Although hostile to the independence of sovereigns, the power of deposition was often supported by the sovereigns themselves. Thus, when Richard I, of England, was detained a prisoner in Germany, his mother, Eleanor, repeatedly solicited the Pontiff to procure his liberation by the exercise of that authority which he possessed over temporal princes. Again, John, the successor of Richard, invoked the aid of the same authority to recover Normandy from the French king. At what particular period the Popes began to exercise this power, does not appear; nor is it exactly certain what the particular circumstances were which gave rise to it.

8. At first they exercised only their spiritual censures; but, in an age when all ideas of justice were modelled after the feudal jurisprudence, it was soon admitted that princes, by their disobedience to the spiritual power of the Catholic Church, had violated the oath of their coronation, and become traitors to God; and, as such, that they had forfeited their kingdoms; and, in the case of Henry IV, we hear the Germans expressly declare that they had sworn fealty to him on condition that he should reign for the edification and not for the destruction of the Church, and were he to infringe this duty, they would think themselves no longer bound by their oath of allegiance to him.*

To pronounce the sentence by which they were freed from the allegiance, was thought to belong exclusively to the Sovereign Pontiff, who was regarded as the head of the Church.

9. At the news of the sentence pronounced by Pope Gregory VII, the princes of Germany assembled in order to appoint another Emperor in the place of Henry. The distressed monarch, seeing that there was no other way left of averting the storm that he had occasioned than by becom-

*See Schlegel's *Philosophy of History.*

What is said of this power? Of this doctrine? Give some instances in which it was supported by sovereigns themselves. What does not appear?—8. In an age, etc., what was soon admitted? In the case of Henry IV, what do we hear? To pronounce this sentence, belonged to whom?—9. What did German princes do? What is said of the distressed monarch?

ing reconciled to the See of Rome, departed for Italy, determined to effect his reconciliation on any terms. Gregory had left Rome, and advanced as far as Canossa, on his way to Germany; here Henry met him in a penitential garb, presented himself at the gates of the castle, and humbly begged to be admitted into the presence of the Sovereign Pontiff, acknowledging his guilt, and expressing his readiness to make all the satisfaction in his power. Gregory, who had repeatedly experienced the insincerity of the Emperor, kept him, by way of trial, in suspense for three days; on the fourth day he gave him an audience, received his submission, and absolved him on certain conditions.

10. The repentance of Henry was of short duration. Having assembled a numerous army, he refused to comply with the terms to which he had subscribed, and resumed his former course of violence against both Church and State. At length the German princes, disgusted with the perfidious conduct of their ruler, proceeded to the election of another. The choice fell upon Rudolph, Duke of Suabia. A civil war ensued, which terminated in the death of Rudolph, who perished in a battle near Marburg, leaving Henry still master of the empire. Elated by this success, the conquerer marched into Italy, and, having taken Rome, he entered the Lateran palace, and caused the excommunicated Bishop from Ravenna to be declared Pope, under the title of Clement III. In the meantime, Gregory had retired to the strong castle of St. Angelo, where he remained until the arrival of Robert Guiscard, the leader of the Normans, who obliged Henry to retire with his anti-pope. The lawful Pontiff was thus left master of the city; but as party violence rendered it unsafe or unpleasant for him to remain there, he removed to Monte Cassino, and finally to Salerno, where he was taken dangerously ill. A few moments before his death, he uttered these words: "I have loved justice and hated iniquity; and, therefore, I die in a strange land;" after which he calmly expired on the 25th of May, A. D. 1085.

How did Henry meet Gregory? How long was he kept on trial?—10. What was the repentance of Henry? Having assembled his army, what did he do? Whom did the German princes choose in his place? What ensued? What was the fate of Rudolph? What did Henry now do? Where did Gregory retire? Where did he remove? What words did he utter before his death?

CHAPTER II

FROM THE DEATH OF POPE GREGORY VII TO THE PRESENT TIME. —A. D. 1085 TO 1909.

IN 1311, Henry VII, Emperor of Germany, invaded Italy, and caused himself to be crowned king of Lombardy, at Milan. Italy was at this period in a state of anarchy, divided by two contending factions, which took their origin during the civil wars in Germany; the one in favor of the Emperor, styled the Ghibellines, the other his opponents, called the Guelphs. During the contest, the Pope, finding his situation at Rome unpleasant, removed the seat of his power to Avignon, in France. In 1377, the Holy See was again removed back to Rome, by Pope Gregory IX. After his death, the citizens of Avignon and Rome contended for the freedom of election. This gave rise to that celebrated contest for the Pontifical chair called the Great Schism of the West. It was finally settled by the Council of Constance, and tranquillity was restored by the election of Martin Colonna.

2. The illustrious family of the Medici, at this period, attained to a high degree of eminence in Florence, under Cosmo de Medici, who received the title of Grand Duke of Tuscany. The power of the Medici, which continued upwards of a century, forms a brilliant era in literature and in the liberal arts; and the republic enjoyed a high degree of splendor during that period. Cosmo himself was a liberal patron of science, and employed his immense wealth in erecting works of taste and literary institutions. His dwelling at Florence exceeded in magnificence any palace in Europe; yet he was plain and unassuming in his private life. Cosmo II, who succeeded to the head of the government in 1537, encouraged the fine arts, and is said to have been the most generous patron of genius since the days of Augustus.

3. The subsequent history of Italy affords few events of importance until the period of the French revolution. The Italian states shared largely in the convulsions caused by

CHAPTER II.—1. In 1311, what took place? What was the state of Italy at this period? During the contest, where did the Popes remove? In 1377, what happened? To what did this give rise?—2. What is said of the family of the Medici? What does their power form? What is said of Cosmo and his dwelling?—3. What is remarked of the subsequent history of Italy?

that event. The French overran the Ecclesiastical States, took the city of Rome, and dragged the aged and venerable Pius VI captive into France, where he died in 1799. The kings of Naples and Sardinia were likewise driven from their dominions. In 1809, Napoleon solicited the Pope to close his harbors against British commerce, and become a party in the war against Russia. To these measures Pius VII returned a positive refusal, saying that "being the father of all Christian nations, he could not, consistently with that character, become the enemy of any one."

4. The haughty Emperor, highly incensed at this courageous reply, issued a decree at Vienna, declaring the Ecclesiastical States annexed to his empire. The venerable Pius VII was immediately sent into captivity and exile, having previously pronounced the sentence of excommunication against Napoleon. The Pope remained in captivity for about five years, until after the first dethronement of the Emperor of France, in 1814, when he again returned to Rome.

5. Waterloo sealed the doom of Napoleon. The Congress of Vienna reinstated the deposed rulers of the various Italian States. Austria, of course, had a large share;* and the Pope got back his possessions. There was, however, much dissatisfaction among certain classes of the people. A net-work of secret political societies† soon spread over the peninsula; and the first fruits of such organizations were seen in the risings of 1820 and 1821 in Piedmont and Naples.

6. Over a quarter of a century passed. It was almost wholly peaceful. Then came 1848—the year of revolutions. The rising in Paris and the flight of King Louis Philippe were signals for similar outbreaks in almost every capital of Europe.

7. The flame of insurrection swept over Rome and the north of Italy. In Milan and Venice the Austrian garrisons were driven out, and the standard of independence raised throughout the whole of Lombardy. This success inspired Charles Albert, king of Sardinia, with the hope of making

* Lombardy and Venice, known in history as the Lombard-Venetian kingdom.

†Called Carbonari, or Charcoal-burners.

What did the French overrun? Who were driven from their dominions? What occurred in 1809?—4. How did Napoleon treat the Pope? How long did the Pope remain in captivity?—5. What is said of the Congress of Vienna? Of secret societies?—6. What occurred in 1848?—7. Where did the flame of insurrection extend?

himself master of the Lombard-Venetian kingdom, and he accordingly declared war against Austria. In this he was joined by numerous Italian volunteers, and for a brief period success attended his arms. The prospect, however, was soon changed. In the summer of 1848, the Austrian Field-Marshal, Radetski, then in the eighty-sixth year of his age, signally defeated Charles Albert at Custozza. The king of Sardinia fled during the night into his own dominions, and a truce was concluded with the victors. Urged on by the popular leaders, and burning with the desire to obliterate the dishonor of the late defeat, Charles Albert again resolved to try the fortune of war. Accordingly, in the following spring, he again crossed the Austrian boundaries. He was met by Radetski at Vercelli, and signally defeated. He was again routed on the following day at Novara, with the loss of upwards of fifteen thousand men. This ended the war. Radetski returned in triumph to Milan after an absence of only eleven days. Charles Albert, after the second defeat, hastily abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel, fled into Switzerland, and thence into Spain, where he shortly afterwards died.

8. In the meantime Rome was the scene of the most flagrant outrages and disorders. On the death of Gregory XVI, the choice of the conclave fell upon Cardinal Ferretti, who assumed the name of Pius IX—a name destined soon to become illustrious. The new Pontiff, from the very commencement of his reign, gave proofs of a liberal and enlightened policy, by granting to the people every reform consistent with their happiness and the well-being of the State. At first his generous acts were received with enthusiasm, and the name of Pius IX was everywhere hailed with applause. Rome, however, had been for some time previously the centre of a secret political organization, which had for its ultimate object the destruction of both Church and State. The leaders of this body, at that time, were Mazzini, Storbini, and Galletti, men of talents and energy, but of the most unscrupulous and abandoned principles. They at first strongly urged the Pontiff

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What did the king of Sardinia do? In the summer of 1848, what battle was fought? What was the result? What battle was fought in the following spring? Where was Charles Albert again defeated? What became of him?—8. In the meantime what was the condition of Rome? Who succeeded Gregory XVI? At first, how were his generous acts hailed? Who were the leaders of the secret societies? At first what did they urge?

to join in the war against Austria, and on his refusal to comply with their request, they cunningly threw the blame on the Jesuits, and held them up to the people as the friends of Austria and the enemies of Italian independence. The "blacks," as they were termed, were everywhere denounced, and so great was the popular feeling, thus unjustly excited against them, that the worthy and learned followers of St. Ignatius could not with safety any longer appear in public, and were finally expelled from the Papal dominions.

9. Encouraged by this success, they next directed their attacks against the Cardinals. It was the determination of the revolutionary leaders from the beginning to destroy this Order, and thereby remove from the Pope his most faithful counsellors. Under various pretences they assembled the people, and inflamed their minds against the Austrians, with whom they pretended the Cardinals had entered into a league for the purpose of delivering Rome into their hands and crushing forever the hopes of Italian independence. At the same time they professed the utmost loyalty to the Pope, but falsely and maliciously represented the Cardinals as restraining His Holiness in his measures of reform, and of preventing his joining in the war against Austria, as they had formerly done in regard to the Jesuits. From this time forward the cry of "Death to the Cardinals!" was heard in every part of Rome.

10. With the idea of conciliating the popular leaders, the Pope, in the fall of 1848, appointed as his prime minister, Count Rossi, a statesman of liberal views, a friend of nationality, but a man of energy and determination. The count entered on the duties of his office by the adoption of the most vigorous measures for the restoration of order, and for the suppression of the lawless proceedings which had for some time disgraced the Eternal City. Alarmed at his boldness, the conspirators resolved to remove him by assassination, which they did in the most brutal manner, on the steps of the senate chamber. Immediately after the death of the faithful Rossi, and while the city was still in the utmost excitement on account of the horrid deed, the conspirators formed themselves into a Committee of Public Safety, assumed the command of the military forces, and the control

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Against whom did they excite the indignation of the people?—9. Against whom did they next direct their attacks?—10. Who was appointed prime minister? What was his fate? Immediately after this, what was done?

of the entire municipal authority. They then formed a new ministry, composed of the most violent members of their own body, such as Mannani, Galletti, Sterbini, and others, and went in procession to the Quirinal, accompanied by an immense crowd of soldiers of every grade, and followed by a curious and drunken mob. His Holiness requested time to consider their demands, but they insisted on his immediate assent. This being refused, they made a most furious assault on the palace, set fire to the gates, and attempted to scale the walls. During the assault, Mons. Palma, Latin Secretary of the Pope, having exposed himself at one of the windows, was shot dead on the spot.

11. For several days His Holiness was kept a close prisoner in his own palace. Finding himself, however, completely at the mercy of the conspirators, and learning that they were about to compel him to renounce all temporal power over the Roman States, and that his life was threatened if he refused, he determined, if possible, to escape from the city. Accordingly, with the assistance of the Bavarian and French ambassadors, he effected his flight from Rome, on the 24th of November, 1848, and proceeded to Gaeta, in the kingdom of Naples, where he was cordially received by the king and the royal family.

12. After the flight of Pius IX, the Papal government was abolished, and a republic proclaimed. In the meantime, the Pope was not idle. In the early part of January following his arrival at Gaeta, he published a solemn protest against the proceedings of the conspirators in Rome, and appealed to the great Catholic powers of Europe, respectfully asking their armed interposition in his behalf. His request was immediately responded to by several of the powers to whom the appeal was made. Among these, France took the lead. In the latter part of April, 1849, a French army, under the command of General Oudinot, landed in the Papal States, and marched directly to Rome. The first attack on the city was unsuccessful, and the French general was obliged to retire to Palo, a few miles from Rome, there to await the arrival of reinforcements. About the middle of June the attack was renewed, and continued with but little intermis-

Who was killed during the assault?—11. For several days, how was the Pope kept? By whose assistance did he escape, and where did he retire to?—12. What was done after the flight of His Holiness? What did he publish, etc.? In April, 1849, what did the French do? What is said of the first attack?

sion for nearly two weeks. The city was finally carried, and General Oudinot entered with his forces on the 2d of July. He immediately dispatched one of his officers to Gaeta, to inform the Sovereign Pontiff of the victory, and to place at his feet the keys of the city.

13. The Pope remained at Gaeta until the following April, when he returned in triumph to his capital, and quietly resumed the exercise of his authority. The evils entailed on the country by the late convulsion were serious and manifold. Commerce had been interrupted, the mechanical branches of industry paralyzed, debts created, and the community flooded by a worthless paper currency, which had been issued by the republic. To remedy these evils was the first care of Pius IX on being restored to his capital, and to this he applied himself with unremitting energy. By his prudent measures, public confidence was soon restored, and life and energy infused into every department of the government. The loyal and good were more than ever endeared to the person of the Pontiff, while the hostility of his enemies was disarmed by his mildness and generosity.

14. The magnanimity of the Holy Father did not, however, stay the revolutionary attempts of the Italian agitators. The war against Austria, in 1859, by exciting the public mind, gave birth to a political organization having in view the unity of Italy, and Victor Emmanuel, king of Sardinia, was proclaimed the head of the united kingdom. States ejected their rulers to enter this new combination, thereby not gaining their independence, but simply a poor change of masters. The papal territory was sadly diminished by these unceremonious annexations. Bologna and the Romagna were absorbed, and in 1860 the duchies of Parma and Modena were united to the new and growing kingdom.

15. The Pope having appealed, in vain, to the Catholic sovereigns of Europe, resolved to make an effort to resist these encroachments. He called upon the faithful to volunteer in defence of the Holy See, and entrusted the organization of his army to General De Lamoricière, a French officer of the greatest merit, who had won imperishable fame

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What was the final result?—13. When did the Pope return to his capital? What evils were entailed on the community by the late convulsion?—14. What happened in Italy in 1860? Was the papal territory diminished? How?—15. What did the Pope do? What general took command of his army?

in the African war. Volunteers flocked from every part of Europe, and Lamoricière was busily engaged in their organization and instruction, when, without any previous declaration of hostilities, the Sardinian General, Cialdini, at the head of sixty thousand, invaded the papal territory, and attacked the volunteers at Castelfidardo. Lamoricière's skill as a commander was unavailing to resist the attack. His raw recruits, poorly armed, and far inferior in number to the enemy, were cut down or taken prisoners, and the organization of the Pontifical volunteers destroyed at one fell blow. The gallant general, however, cut his way through the enemy, and threw himself into the city of Ancona. But this place, attacked and shelled by the Sardinian fleet, was soon after compelled to capitulate. The fall of Ancona involved the loss to the Pontifical States of the Marches and Umbria.

16. Meanwhile, the revolution was still progressing all over Italy. Garibaldi was overrunning the Two Sicilies and taking Naples, whilst Cialdini besieged and took Gaeta. The youthful king of the Two Sicilies, Francis II, bravely defended his possessions. He could be seen, in the batteries of Gaeta, accompanied by his young and amiable queen, animating the gunners by his example; but he had to succumb, and sought refuge in Rome.

17. The interference of Napoleon III, who sent troops to Rome, saved the Eternal City, for a time, from falling again into the hands of the revolutionists. Victor Emmanuel, however, was declared King of Italy. The seat of government was transferred to Florence, but the revolutionists were not satisfied. They wanted Rome. In 1864 a convention was concluded at Paris between Napoleon and Victor Emmanuel. Italy bound herself not to attack the territory of the Holy Father—as it then stood—and, if necessary, to prevent by force attacks on it from any quarter. On the other hand, France agreed to withdraw her troops gradually, so that the evacuation of Rome would be completed in two years. Such was the contract. We shall soon see how it was broken by the faithless King of Italy.

What happened at Castelfidardo? Where did Lamoricière go? What was the fate of Ancona?—16. What about the movements of Garibaldi and Cialdini? How did Francis I behave?—17. What saved Rome for a time from the revolutionists? Who was declared King of Italy? What did the revolutionists desire? What was concluded at Paris in 1864? How did Italy bind herself? What did France agree to do?

GERMAN FEDERATION
SWITZERLAND
EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA
FRANCE
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
LOMBARDY-VENETIA
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
TURKEY
Danube
Milan
Venice
Genoa
Nice
Monaco
Corsica
(To France)
GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
Adriatic Sea
Rome
Civita Vecchia
Naples
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
SICILY
TWO SICILIES
SARDINIA
Part of Kingdom of Sardinia
TYRRHENIAN SEA
Malta
(To Great Britain)
AFRICA
Palermo
Messina
Trapani
Marsala
Girgenti
Syracusa
Catania
Reggio
Otranto
Tarante
Bari
Foggia
Naples
Gaeta
Ancona
Pesaro
Florence
Lucca
Siena
Arezzo
Perugia
Orvieto
Viterbo
Aquila
Leghorn
Pisa
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Ferrara
Padua
Verona
Brescia
Bergamo
Trent
Udine
Turin
Alessandria
Piacenza
Reggio
Novi
Genoa
Casale
Vercelli
Magenta
Como
Varese
Chiavenna
Bormio
Lodi
Pavia
Mantua
Comacchio
Ravenna
Forli
Imola
S. Marino
Ancona
Loreto
Jesi
Lissa
Barletta
Trani
Capua
Benevento
Salerno
Gaeta
Velletri
Civita Vecchia
Corsica
La Maddalena I.
Caprera I.
Cagliari
Malta
(To Great Britain)
ITALY
in 1859
(before the Austro-Sardinian War)
0 50 100
Scale of Miles
8 10 12 Longitude East 14 from Greenwich 16
48 46 44 42 40 38 36

18. On December 8, 1869, Pius IX formally opened the General Council of the Vatican, when seven hundred and twenty-three Fathers were present. It was the most numerous and august ecclesiastical assembly which has met in modern times. Sessions were held until the following July, and the dogma of the Infallibility of the Pope in matters of faith and morals, when teaching *ex cathedra,* was defined and proclaimed.

19. The summer of 1870 brought about vast changes in the situation of Europe.* The last troops of the French garrison were withdrawn from Rome; and soon Napoleon III was a prisoner in the hands of the Prussians. It was a most tempting opportunity for the ardent revolutionists of Italy. Nor was it neglected. They seized Rome, and snatched the last remnant of his temporal possessions from the venerable Pontiff. Victor Emmanuel himself entered the Eternal City in December, 1870, and made it the capital of united Italy. The reign of sacrilege began. Ecclesiastical property was confiscated. Convents, colleges, and monasteries were closed, and the pious inmates expelled in a brutal manner, worthy of Henry VIII, of England.

20. Victor Emmanuel went to give an account to his Almighty Creator in January, 1878. He was succeeded by his son, Prince Humbert. Less than a month passed, and the illustrious Pius IX—who had outlived "the years of Peter"—died; and the election of His Holiness, Leo XIII, speedily followed. In Italy, as it then was, lawless might had overcome right, but it was not to be so forever.

21. In 1883, Italy entered into an alliance with Germany and Austria that has become famous in history. It is known as the Dreibund, or Triple Alliance. By it these three great powers stand pledged to act together against public enemies. The peace of Europe is supposed to depend on the preservation of this alliance. It was renewed in 1889, and again in 1891.

22. Since 1883, the foreign relations of Italy have been unimportant. Like other European nations, Italy caught the

* See "France," and "Prussia."

18. What is said of the Vatican Council?—19. What is remarked of the summer of 1870? Of the French garrison of Rome, and Napoleon? What did the Italian revolutionists do? When did Victor Emmanuel enter Rome? What began?—20. When did Victor Emmanuel die? Who succeeded? When did Pius IX die? Who was elected?—21. What is the Dreibund? What is it said to secure? —22. What attempt at colonization?

fever of African colonization, and attempts were made to plant a colony on the eastern coast of the dark continent. It proved a failure. In 1890 the lynching of a number of Italian residents of New Orleans, who had been corruptly acquitted on the charge of having assassinated a most faithful officer, led to the suspension of diplomatic relations with the United States. A pecuniary compensation to the families of those slain amicably closed the incident. At Genoa, in 1892, an imposing international naval demonstration commemorated the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. Towards the close of this year the public was startled by the discovery of great frauds in connection with the management of the Italian banks, whereby many millions were lost. The government being more or less involved in the affair, investigations were made rather tenderly.

In 1895, Italy again undertook to extend her colony of Erythrea, in East Africa; seized the Abyssinian province of Tigré, and undertook to establish a protectorate over the whole of the Negus' dominions. But King Menelek prepared to resist; and the Italians, after suffering several reverses, were disastrously defeated in the battle of Adua, March 1, 1896. The results were the immediate overthrow of the Crispi ministry at home and the abandonment of colonial extension in Africa.

On July 29, 1900, King Humbert was assassinated by an anarchist at Monza, and was succeeded by his son, Victor Emmanuel III.

23. In respect to the religious and ecclesiastical attitude of Italy: The government is controlled by those who are radical in politics and hostile to the Church. The position of the Pope remains unchanged. The law of the papal guarantees (enacted in 1870, when Rome was made the political capital), declaring the Pope, with his *entourage,* independent of the Italian government, and granting him annually 4,000,000 francs, is still in force. The francs, however, are, year by year, proffered only. The Pope refuses the annuity, since acceptance would acknowledge acquiescence in the seizure of his temporal possessions. Impartial observers affirm that Italy, in a moral sense, is showing decadence; and a prime cause is pointed out in the elimination of religion from the

Give an account of the New Orleans lynching. What events in 1892? What military disaster befell Italy in 1896?—23. What is the law of the papal guarantees? Why does not the Pope receive the annuity?

governmental schools. Official station and professional existence depend, as a rule, on holding a diploma from these schools. Students, therefore, press into them; and the rising Italian generation shows the trend of their curriculum to mould a lower standard of character. On the whole, therefore, with brigandage, dynamite bombs, excessive militarism, high taxes, and hard times, the national outlook is not the most cheerful.

24. Toward the close of the nineteenth century the mania for colonization swept over a considerable part of Europe. Though oppressed with debt, Italy did not escape the general craze. The endeavor to obtain a foothold on the Nile, led, in 1887, to a war with Abyssinia, which resulted in the acquisition of considerable territory, and the establishment of the colony of Erythrea. With the accession, in 1889, of a new king, Menelek, there arose much native opposition. He refused to recognize the Italian protectorate, and in a few years there were hostilities between the foreigners and the dervishes. In January, 1896, at Adowa, Menelek, with eighty thousand followers, fell upon the Italian army of fourteen thousand, and killed a number, estimated at six thousand. This disaster led to the abandonment of Italy's colonial policy.

25. Under a succession of able ministers, the finances of Italy have been greatly improved; the public debt has been reduced; and, notwithstanding agrarian troubles, and strikes, domestic tranquillity has been established. With the world outside, especially with Great Britain and France, Italy enjoys friendly relations.

26. During the Pontificate of Pope Leo XIII, the feeling between the government and the Church continued constantly to improve, and under his successor, Pope Pius X, their relations have become even more friendly. It is believed that, since the hostile attitude of France, the Papacy will turn more and more for the protection of its interests to the government of Italy. The Catholics are now taking active part in

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What is said of the present moral tone of the rising Italian generation? The cause of the decadence?—24. What was the favorite policy of European nations at the close of the nineteenth century? What was the cause of the Abyssian war? What was the result? What led Italy to abandon her colonial policy?—25. What domestic improvements took place in that country? What was the nature of Italy's foreign relations after the abandonment of her colonial policy—26. What has been the nature of the relations between the Popes and the Italian government? What is likely to be the result of the anti-Catholic policy of France?

Italian politics, and it is expected that their influence will count for much in the restoration of order and prosperity.

27. For many years after its accomplishment, Italian unity did not bring about, as was expected, any sensible increase of prosperity. Since 1901, however, there has been a marked increase in imports as well as exports. Agriculture, too, shows signs of reviving. Notwithstanding the great losses by emigration to South America, the United States, and other countries, the population, now almost thirty-two million five hundred thousand, has been steadily increasing.

28. Once the schoolmistress of Europe, Italy now ranks among the most backward in education. This condition has been ascribed not so much to the absence of interest as to the lack of an efficient system. From this remark, however, must be excepted that part of popular education under the control of the Church. In its management this is much superior. The universities, of which there are twenty-one, send forth great numbers of graduates, but as many of these can find no employment, they tend to unite with the discontented part of the population.

29. In April, 1906, an eruption of Mount Vesuvius destroyed four towns and several villages in its vicinity. On that occasion more than two thousand lives were lost. The presence of the king and queen did much to lessen the sufferings, and set at rest the alarm of the people. That disaster, however, and, perhaps, any recorded in history, was completely overshadowed on December 28, 1908, when a violent earthquake destroyed the city of Messina, in Sicily, and Reggio, on the mainland. Besides the utter wreck of these flourishing commercial centres, much injury was done to small towns and villages for a considerable distance on each side of the Messinian Strait. As yet, May, 1909, there has been made no attempt to estimate the destruction of property, but it must have been enormous. It is doubtful whether the loss of human life will ever be accurately known. It is, however, generally agreed that upward of two hundred thousand were buried in the ruins or died from exposure following the calamity. This is a dark shadow upon the pleasant picture suggested by the preceding paragraphs.

Do Catholics take any part in Italian politics?—27. Did Italian unity bring prosperity to the country? What improvement has taken place since 1901?—28. What is the condition of education in Italy?—29. What calamity occurred in 1906? What still greater disaster occurred in 1908?

GERMANY, AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.
FROM B.C. —1901.
Scale of Miles
0 12½ 50 75 100
BALTIC SEA
SCHLESWIG
HOLSTEIN
Hamburg
Lauenburg
Elbe R.
NORTH SEA
THE NETHERLANDS
Weser R.
Aller R.
Brandenburg
Hannover
BRANDENBURG
Oder R.
Schwartze Elster R.
Wittenburg
WEST PRUSSIA
EAST PRUSSIA
Vistula R.
Warsaw
Rhine R.
Munster
WESTPHALIA
SILESIA
POLAND
BELGIUM
Waterloo
Cassel
HESSE
Dresden
Breslau
Liege
Aix-la-Chapelle
Nassau
SAXONY
Chemnitz
Jena
Prague
BOHEMIA
Cracow
Bochnia
Paris
Versailles
R. Seine
Darmstadt
Maine R.
Metz
LORRAINE
BAVARIA
AUSTRIA
ALSACE
Munich
Vienna
Danube River
L. Constance
Innsbruck
Buda
Posth
HUNGARY
SWITZERLAND
Geneva
Gratz
Magenta
Milan
W

BOOK XII

GERMANY AND AUSTRIA

CHAPTER I

FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG, A. D. 1264.

OUR knowledge of the primitive inhabitants of Germany, who were most probably of Celtic origin, is very limited, until the period of the Roman conquests in that country. At the time when Julius Cæsar invaded the country, Germany seems to have been divided into a number of independent principalities; but the inhabitants frequently united for their mutual defence, and the many bloody battles they fought before they sank under the power of the invaders, established their reputation for bravery. On the decline of the Western Empire of the Romans, Germany fell under the dominion of the Saxons, and remained in their possession until Charlemagne extended his power over the whole country.

2. In the year 843, the Empire of the West was divided into three monarchies, France, Germany, and Italy; and about the year 887 the imperial dignity was transferred entirely to Germany, which, in the history of Europe, is called, by way of distinction, the Empire, and the subjects, the Imperialists. After the death of Louis III, in 912, the imperial crown became strictly elective, although, during the hereditary succession, the consent of the Bishops and nobility had always been asked. Conrad was the first elected to the vacant

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CHAPTER I.—1. What is our knowledge of the primitive inhabitants of Germany? In the time of Julius Cæsar, how were they divided? On the decline of the Western Empire, what was the fate of the Germans?—2. In 843, what took place? And in 887? And in 912?

throne, and, after a reign of seven years, Henry I, surnamed the Fowler, was raised to the imperial dignity. Henry possessed great ability and introduced good order into his dominions. He built and embellished several cities, reduced and conciliated many of the revolted lords, subdued the Hungarians, Danes, Bohemians, and others, and added Lorraine to his empire.

3. His son, Otho I, was elected Emperor in 936. He possessed all the genius of his father, and pursued a similar system of policy. In 961, he invaded Italy, at the solicitation of the Italian states, during their contest with Berenger. Otho defeated him and Adalbert, and caused himself to be crowned at Milan as Emperor of the Romans. He died in 972, after an active reign of thirty years. Otho II succeeded his father in 973; during this reign nothing of importance occurred. The reign of his successors, Otho III, Henry II, Conrad II, and Henry III, are marked by few striking events. Towards the close of the reign of Henry II, usually called St. Henry, the pious monarch wished to renounce all earthly grandeur, and applied to Richard, Abbot of St. Viennes, in Lorraine, for admission into the monastery. The Abbot received him, but immediately commanded him, in virtue of a vow of obedience, to reassume the government of the empire, for the honor of God and the good of the people, to which the monarch humbly, though reluctantly, submitted.

4. Henry IV, surnamed the Great, succeeded to the throne in 1056, at the early age of six years. His reign is chiefly memorable for its contests with the Popes, the particulars of which may be seen in the history of Italy. The latter part of his life was embittered by the unnatural conduct of his own son, who openly revolted and obliged his father, Henry, to abdicate the crown. The dethroned monarch was removed to Liege, where he shortly after died, a prey to excessive grief, A. D. 1106, after a reign of fifty years, during which he had been present in sixty-two battles, in most of which he was victorious. His exploits, his bravery, and talents have ranked him among the greatest of German sovereigns.

5. Nothing of importance occurred in the history of Germany during the reigns of several succeeding Emperors. The

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What is said of Henry I?—3. Who was next elected? In 961, what did he do? When did he die? Who succeeded? What is related of Henry II?—4. Who succeeded in 1056? For what is his reign distinguished? What was the latter part of his life? When did he die?

reign of Frederick I, surnamed Barbaros'sa, on account of his red beard, was chiefly signalized by an expedition to the Holy Land, during which he was drowned in the river Cydnus, in Cilicia. After the reign of Conrad IV, there followed a period of nearly twenty years of contention and confusion, called the Great Interregnum. The disorder was terminated by the election of Rodolphus, Count of Hapsburg, in Switzerland, to the imperial throne, A. D. 1264. The new Emperor found the country in a state of anarchy and confusion, but by his wise and prudent measures succeeded in restoring order. His reign was distinguished by many acts of virtue and justice. He left one son, from whom the present house of Austria is descended, and who afterwards succeeded to the throne, under the title of Albert I, in 1298.

CHAPTER II

A GLANCE AT THE HISTORY OF SIX HUNDRED YEARS.

IT was during the reign of Albert I that the Swiss revolted. At first only a few of the cantons combined to assert their freedom, and a small army of thirteen hundred Swiss defeated an immense host of Austrians, in the pass of Morgarten, in 1315. The rest of the cantons by degrees joined the revolt, and with invincible perseverance, after sixty sanguinary battles with their enemies, they achieved their independence. This event was chiefly effected by the patriotism of the sturdy inhabitants. Legends relate that William Tell was chiefly responsible for this achievement, but historians refuse to accept the tradition.

2. The reigns of the eight succeeding Emperors present few events of importance. The reign of Henry VII, however, was memorable for the miseries under which Germany groaned during that period. A raging pestilence and famine depopulated the towns and desolated the provinces. The rich

5. For what was the reign of Frederick I signalized? What happened after the reign of Conrad IV? How was the disorder terminated? What is said of the new emperor? What did he leave?

CHAPTER II.—1. What took place in the reign of the prince? Where was the Austrian army defeated? By whom was this event effected?—2. For what is the reign of Henry VII memorable?

sought an asylum in other countries, while the poor perished for the want of assistance. Wolves and other beasts of prey, impelled by hunger, quitted the forest, and, rushing into the towns, devoured the famished inhabitants. Cataracts, bursting from the mountains, swept trees and houses before them with violent impetuosity, and the earth was convulsed by frequent shocks, which seemed to agitate it to the very centre.

3. Frederick III succeeded to the throne in 1440. His family became the most powerful in Germany, by the marriage of his son with Mary, the heiress of Burgundy and the Netherlands. He was succeeded by his son, Maximilian I, a prince possessed of considerable talents. He established peace among the German states, and freed the country from the disorders occasioned by the Feudal System. Maximilian was succeeded, in 1519, by his grandson, Charles V, the most powerful sovereign of his age. His long reign, which continued for nearly forty years, was one of almost continual warfare, chiefly with his great rival, Francis I, of France. During this contest, in 1527, Charles took Rome, which for nine months was given up to plunder. A few years after this event, he took the city of Tunis, and liberated twenty-two thousand Christian slaves. Some time before his death, he resigned the crown of Spain to his son, Philip II, and leaving the throne of Germany to his brother, Ferdinand, retired to the monastery of St. Just, in Spain; and here, in this peaceful retreat, the greatest monarch of the age ended his days. The Protestant Reformation, which began to make considerable progress in Germany, is one of the most remarkable events in the history of that empire. It was commenced, about the year 1517, by Martin Luther, an Augustinian Father, who was then professor of theology at Wittenberg.*

4. The reigns of the successors of Ferdinand, Maximilian II, and Rodolphus II, were generally peaceful and prosperous. The reigns of Ferdinand II and Ferdinand III were signalized by the thirty years' war, which commenced in the year 1618, and was terminated by the peace of Westphalia, in 1648.

* For details, see "The Church," chap. iii.

What is said of the rich? Of wolves? Of cataracts?—3. Who succeeded to the throne? By whom was Maximilian succeeded? What is said of his reign? What cities did he take? Before his death, what did he do? What is one of the most remarkable events in the history of this empire?—4. By what were the reigns of Ferdinand II and III signalized? In what had this war its origin?

This celebrated war had its origin in the deplorable religious dissensions of the sixteenth century. On the one side was the Protestant confederacy, styled the Evangelical Union, and on the other the Catholic League. The final result of the contest was the equal establishment of the Protestant and Catholic religions.

5. By the death of Charles VI, in 1740, the male line of the house of Hapsburg became extinct, and his eldest daughter, the celebrated Maria Teresa, succeeded to his dominions. Her title, however, was disputed by Charles, the elector of Bavaria. This circumstance gave rise to the contest called the war of the Austrian succession, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, when the claim of Maria Teresa was acknowledged, and her husband, Francis of Lorraine, was invested with the imperial dignity. The Empress was distinguished for her heroism, eminent talents, and affability. She built various hospitals and encouraged commerce and science.

6. Maria Teresa was succeeded by her son, Joseph II, in the year 1765. The reign of this monarch was signalized by his war with the Turks, during which he died, and was succeeded by his brother, Leopold II, who, after a short reign of two years, left the throne to Francis II. Germany, during the French revolution, became the theatre of most of the wars carried on at that period. In 1804, Francis caused himself to be proclaimed hereditary Emperor of Austria, and, two years subsequent to this event, he was compelled by Napoleon, the Emperor of France, to resign the title of Emperor of Germany, and absolve the German states from their allegiance. Thus ended the German Empire, after it had continued from the commencement of the Western Empire, under Charlemagne, a period of one thousand and six years. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, Austria joined the fifth coalition against him, and, after the second dethronement of the French Emperor, a new union was formed by the German states, called the Germanic Confederation. It was subsequently signed at Vienna, and the several states were restored by Austria to nearly their former possessions.

What was on the one side? On the other?—5. What celebrated woman succeeded? Who disputed her title? What war was the consequence, and how did it end? For what was Maria Teresa distinguished?—6. What is said of Joseph II and his reign? What did Francis II do in 1804? What did Napoleon force him to do? What did this end? Did Austria join the fifth coalition? What confederation was formed?

7. For the next fifty years, Austria exerted a powerful influence in the affairs of Europe, and more especially in the German confederation. The Emperor, Francis II, meant well to his subjects, but as he grew older he became more and more despotic. Nor did his death, in 1832, make much alteration in the policy of the Austrian government. Ferdinand I trod in his father's footsteps. Discontent increased in Hungary, Bohemia, and other provinces.

8. At length the revolutionary movement of 1848 came, and Europe was shaken to its foundations. The citizens of Vienna rose, and the Emperor and his court fled to Innsbruck. Insurrections broke out in Hungary, Bohemia, and the Italian provinces. Confusion prevailed everywhere. The clash of arms sounded in all quarters. After a siege, Vienna was retaken. Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his young nephew, Francis Joseph, who was declared Emperor in December, 1848. The rebellion in Bohemia and Northern Italy was suppressed; and, by the aid of a Russian army, Hungary was crushed in her aspirations for freedom.

9. We have already referred to the quarrel between Victor Emmanuel and the Emperor of Austria, in 1859.* Napoleon III hastened to the aid of his ally, the king of Sardinia, and the Austrians were severely punished in the brilliant battles of Magenta and Solferino. The peace of Villafranca ended the conflict, and the Emperor Francis Joseph ceded Lombardy to Sardinia.

10. The disagreement with Prussia led to the disastrous campaign of 1866. Austria was vanquished at Sadowa, lost all her Italian possessions, and fell from the preëminent position which she had long held in the German confederation.† After this experience of misfortune, however, Austria began a new and purer political life. It was a happy transformation. In 1867, Hungary obtained her long-cherished desire—a legislature of her own, chosen by the almost universal suffrage of the people. At Pesth the Emperor and Empress were crowned king and queen of Hungary; and to-day Francis Joseph is the most popular sovereign in Europe.

* See "France." † See "Prussia."

7. For the next fifty years, what did Austria do? What is said of Francis II? When did he die? Who succeeded, and what is said of his policy?—8. What happened in 1848?—9. What happened in 1859? —10. What happened in 1866? What occurred after this visitation of misfortune? What did Hungary obtain in 1867? Who were crowned at Pesth?

11. In the settlement relating to the Balkan provinces, made by the treaty of Berlin, which followed the war between Russia and Turkey (1876-1878), Austria obtained, for her portion, Bosnia and Herzegovina. Since then her foreign relations were without special interest, till 1883, when, with Germany and Italy, she formed the Dreibund, or Triple Alliance, for the purpose of defence against a combination or apprehended combination on the part of France and Russia. This alliance was renewed in 1889, and again in 1891.

12. The Emperor, Francis Joseph, is conspicuous for his personal piety and for loyalty to the Holy See. Though the political relation his government bears to that of Italy is of the closest character (by virtue of the Dreibund), yet he has persistently refused to visit the king of Italy at Rome while the latter holds that city against the right and will of the Pope. He has met King Humbert at Milan and Naples, but never at Rome. His empire, in a racial sense, is not a national unit, like the French nation, or the German empire, but a combination of nationalities—German, Slavic, Hungarian. And in the Parliament at Vienna the Germans are constantly in opposition to the other ethnical elements.

13. Austria, like every other European nation, is oppressed by an excessive degree of militarism. The peace of Europe to-day is an armed peace, a peace whose guarantee is immense armies kept constantly on a war footing. European nations are military camps. In immediate contact with each other, and in physical power nearly balanced, their ambitions, hates, and mutual jealousies demand the maintenance of these great armies. Any increase of force or improvement in the art of war on the part of one, has been met, of necessity, by all the rest, until there has been reached an ultra militarism, which not only weighs down the people with taxes, but lessens vastly the amount of production, by withdrawing men from the fields and the ordinary occupations of peace. The government of Austria is representative, with a responsible ministry.

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11. What did the Berlin treaty give to Austria? What is the Dreibund? Its purpose?—12. State the character of the Emperor. How has he shown his loyalty to the Pope? What is the character of the Austrian Empire?—13. How is Austria oppressed? The cause of the excessive militarism? The effect of this militarism? The character of the government?

BOOK XIII

PRUSSIA

CHAPTER I

EARLY HISTORY, TO THE CONCLUSION OF THE REIGN OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.—A. D. 1594 TO 1786.

LITTLE is known of the early history of this country. It was inhabited by a rude and barbarous race called the Borussi, and denominated Brussia or Porussia, from which the present name is derived. In 1594, Prussia and Brandenburg were united into one government by a matrimonial alliance between John Sigismond, elector of Brandenburg, and Anne, the daughter of Albert, Duke of Prussia. On the death of Sigismond, in 1619, his son, the elector, George William, succeeded to the government. During his administration, the electorate suffered the severest calamities, occasioned by the thirty years' war, which grew out of the religious controversies which at that time distracted the continent of Europe.

2. On the death of George, in 1640, his son, Frederick William, succeeded to his dominions. By a wise and well-regulated policy, he succeeded in removing the disorders into which the country had fallen, in consequence of the wars that continued to rage during the reign of his father, and at his death he left the electorate in a prosperous condition. He was succeeded by Frederick I, who assumed the title of king in 1701; previous to this the country was styled the electorate of Brandenburg, and the ruler the elector.

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the history of Prussia, and by whom was it inhabited? In 1594, what took place? Who succeeded Sigismond in 1619?—2. By whom was George succeeded? What did he succeed in removing? By whom was he succeeded, and what did he assume?

Frederick was remarkable for his frugal habits and strict economy. He denied himself even the ordinary comforts of life. In his manners, however, he was rude and harsh, and treated his children with a degree of severity bordering on brutality.

3. Frederick II, styled the Great, who succeeded to the throne in 1740, is regarded as one of the greatest warriors of modern times. Shortly after his accession, he revived his claim to the Duchy of Silesia, invaded the country, and defeated the Austrians in the great battle of Molwitz. After the conquest of Silesia, he turned his victorious arms against Saxony. Having alarmed all Europe by the rapidity of his conquests, a defensive alliance was formed against him by France, Russia, and Austria. A great and bloody contest followed, called the Seven Years' War, during which Frederick maintained his ground against his powerful enemies, until peace was restored by the treaty of Hubertsberg.

4. Frederick was remarkable for the severe discipline which he maintained in his army. On one occasion, while in sight of the enemy, he gave orders that all the lights in the camp should be put out at a certain hour, under the penalty of death. It happened, as he went round the camp to see if his order was obeyed, that he perceived the glimmering of a light proceeding from the tent of one of his officers. As the king entered the tent, the officer, who was in the act of folding a letter, immediately arose and threw himself at the feet of Frederick, and implored his forgiveness for having disobeyed his order, stating, at the same time, that he had been writing a few lines to his wife, and on that account had retained the light for a few moments over the time appointed for extinguishing it. With a stern countenance, the king ordered him to add a few words more to the letter he had just concluded, and to inform his wife that he would be shot on the following day. This rigorous sentence was accordingly executed.

5. In the latter part of his reign, Frederick applied himself to the internal improvements of his kingdom. He built several towns, and gave encouragement to agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. He was fond of literature,

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What is said of Frederick?—3. What is said of Frederick II? On his accession, what did he do? What was formed against him? What ensued?—4. For what was Frederick remarkable? On one occasion, what orders did he give? Relate what followed.—5. In the latter part of his reign, to what did he apply himself?

and possessed some merits as an author. In religion, he was a skeptic, and made Voltaire an intimate companion. The part he acted in the dismemberment of Poland has proved him destitute of every principle of justice or humanity. He died, in 1786, at the advanced age of seventy-four years.

CHAPTER II

FROM THE DEATH OF FREDERICK THE GREAT, TILL THE PRESENT TIME.—A. D. 1786 TO 1908.

FREDERICK the Great was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick William II, a prince more addicted to pleasure than to the affairs of government. After a short and unimportant reign, he was succeeded by his son, Frederick William III, in 1797. Frederick suffered a memorable defeat in his contest with the French, under Napoleon, at the battle of Jena; and at the peace of Tilsit he was deprived of nearly half of his dominions. In 1812, the Prussian monarch joined the coalition against France, and his army, under Blucher, at the famous battle of Waterloo, turned the fortune of the day against the Emperor Napoleon. By the treaty of Vienna, he gained a considerable accession of territory.

2. During the years which succeeded the battle of Waterloo, Prussia underwent a complete reorganization. Trade received a new impulse through the various commercial treaties made with the maritime nations of the world. Public roads and railroads were multiplied, and ample provision was made for the diffusion of education. But there was a marked tendency to over-legislation, which has long been the predominating evil feature of Prussian administration.

3. The accession of Frederick William IV, in 1840, seemed to open a better prospect for the cause of constitutional freedom. When the rumble of revolution was heard, eight years later, the king made lavish promises, which he took little care

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What was he in religion, and who was his companion? What is said of his character? When did he die?

CHAPTER II.—1. Who succeeded Frederick the Great? What is remarked of the reign of Frederick William II, and by whom was he succeeded? What defeat did he suffer? In 1812, what did the Prussian monarch do?—2. What occurred after the battle of Waterloo? What is said of trade? Roads? Education? Over-legislation?—3. What is said of William IV and his reign?

to perform. A new constituton was adopted, which, however, was so modified, year after year, that it soon retained but few of its original provisions.

4. Frederick William was succeeded by his brother, William I, in 1861; and it was then that the bold, unscrupulous genius of Bismarck began to be felt in the affairs of the kingdom and the councils of Europe.

5. In 1863, a quarrel arose between Christian IX, king of Denmark, and the Duke of Augustenburg, about the right of succession to the duchies of Holstein and Schleswig, which both claimed. The German Diet, supporting the Duke of Augustenburg's claim, sent troops to Holstein, while Prussia and Austria, ostensibly for the same object, occupied Schleswig, and, taking the offensive, invaded Jutland. Denmark, fighting alone against such odds, was soon overpowered, and compelled to cede not only Schleswig and Holstein, but also the duchy of Lauenburg.

6. Prussia had obtained Lauenburg for her share of the spoils, but, far from being satisfied, she claimed the two other duchies. Austria refused to submit to such pretensions, and Prussia, withdrawing at once from the German confederation, declared war against her former ally, whose territory she now invaded. She had secured, by a secret treaty, the assistance of Italy, who rejoiced at an opportunity of driving the Austrians from Venetia.

7. The Italian army of invasion was not fortunate. The Archduke Albert gave battle to the Italians, near Custozza, on the 24th of June (1866), and defeated them completely, compelling them to recross the Mincio. Their fleet fared still worse; on the 20th of July, the Italian admiral, Persano, with twenty-three vessels, engaged the inferior fleet of Admiral Tegetoff. Persano lost several vessels and was compelled to run into the port of Ancona for shelter.

8. Meanwhile, the Prussians were operating with much better fortune than their ally. In the month of June, they entered Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Saxony; and soon occupied Frankfort, and overran Darmstadt and Bavaria. The Austrian commander-in-chief was compelled to give battle to the formidable army, which, advancing in two columns, through Saxony and Silesia, made a junction at Gitschin.

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4. Who succeeded to the throne in 1861, and what is said of Bismarck?—5. What was the cause of the war in Schleswig-Holstein? The result?—6. How did Prussia act?—7. What is said of the Italian army? Navy?—8. How did the Prussians succeed?

The Austrians were inferior in number, and demoralized by the non-arrival of eighty thousand Bavarians, upon whom they had counted. The battle of Sadowa resulted in the total defeat and rout of the Austrian army. The carnage was fearful. In this battle the famous needle-gun was used for the first time by the Prussians.

9. Austria was vanquished. To save the national honor, and get rid of at least one of her adversaries, she ceded Venetia to France, with the secret understanding that this province should be turned over to Italy. The French Emperor renewed his offers of mediation, and a treaty of peace was agreed upon on the 26th of July, which was subsequently ratified at Prague.

10. Austria lost much more than she had contended for. She confirmed the cession of Venetia, now a part of Italy; renounced taking any part in the new confederation which Prussia proposed to form north of the Main river; and she formally renounced all claims upon the duchies of Holstein and Schleswig. She had, moreover, to submit to the annexation of Hanover, Hesse, Nassau, and Frankfort to Prussia.

11. The result of this short, but decisive war, was the advancement of Prussia to the head of the North German Confederation, the incorporation of Schleswig-Holstein, and the destruction of Austria's influence in South Germany.

The sudden and remarkable development of Prussia as a military power (shown in this war) alarmed the French Emperor, Napoleon III, and he precipitated a conflict (under the circumstances given in the history of France) in order to cripple Prussia before the incorporation of the South German states should make her still more formidable. France was overwhelmed. By the treaty of Versailles she was compelled to pay to Germany a war indemnity of a billion of dollars and to cede Alsace, Lorraine, and Metz. The incorporation of the South German states with the Northern Confederation followed, the unification of Germany became complete, and at Versailles (January 18, 1871), William I was proclaimed Emperor. Since that event Germany has been, in some important respects, the leading power of Europe.

12. In 1872, the Reichstag passed a law suppressing the

What great battle was fought?—9. What is said of Austria?—10. What did Austria lose?—11. State the result of the war. Why did the French Emperor declare war against Prussia? What power was defeated? What was the result of the war upon France? What upon Germany?—12. What wicked laws were passed in 1872?

Jesuit houses and affiliated orders, followed the next year by the publication of the Falk Laws (that is, laws introduced by Dr. Falk, the Prussian minister of worship), whereby the state has a large control over the education, appointment, and discipline of the Catholic clergy. An open rupture with the Papacy was the result. In 1879, an important law was passed for the suppression of socialistic agitation.

13. Throughout Germany arose, in 1880, a violent commotion against the Jews. In 1884, Germany inaugurated her colonization policy in Africa. It has not been marked by pronounced success. William I died in 1888. He was succeeded by his son, Frederick. The Emperor Frederick died of cancer a few months after his accession, and was succeeded by his son, William II, the present ruler. Prince Bismarck, who had been directing state affairs with a high and undisputed hand, soon found that the young Emperor had a clear sense of his royal rights, and a will to maintain them. They quarrelled. Bismarck was removed from office; General von Caprivi succeeding him as chief minister.

14. The government's attitude towards the Church, within recent years, has much improved. After the accession of Leo XIII, conciliatory measures began to prevail. Bismarck felt the need of the Centre or Catholic party in the Reichstag (ably led by Dr. Windhorst) to carry his financial measures. Overtures were made; and, finally, the harsher features of the anti-papal legislation were revoked, and the Falk Laws so modified (by making their execution discretionary with the government) as to become practically inoperative. The Old Catholic Movement, which Dr. Döllinger originated, does not appear to be making any progress.

15. The Dreibund, or Triple Alliance, a military union with Austria and Italy, Germany consummated in 1883. It was renewed in 1889, and again in 1891. The military spirit is rampant. There is an intense national pride and confidence born of the recent union of the German principalities—a *furor Teutonicus*. It makes Germany so powerful. It resembles the *furor Gallicus* that possessed the French in the days of Napoleon. It supports an excessive militarism. But this

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What law in 1879? What events in 1880? In 1884? In 1888? What occasioned the fall of Bismarck? Who succeeded him?—14. State the cause of the improved relations between the government and the Catholic Church. What is said of the Old Catholic Movement?—15. What power originated the Dreibund? What is the Dreibund? What spirit is rampant?

militarism, on the other hand, depresses trade and distresses labor.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

16. In 1871, there existed within the empire the greatest variety in legal practice. Each little state and even each city had its own system of laws. This condition was almost intolerable. A commission was, therefore, appointed to prepare new codes. During 1877, a criminal code for the empire was completed and adopted; in 1897, was prepared a commercial code, and in 1900, a civil code, very comprehensive in character. These successive measures introduced uniformity into the law. Though each state retains its local courts, there has been established a court of appeal for the empire.

17. German unity was effected by the statesmanship of Bismarck and the military power of Prussia. There remained in the state, however, several elements that at first embarrassed somewhat the imperial government. Immediately after the conquest of Alsace-Lorraine there existed among the inhabitants considerable bitterness toward the victorious Germans, and the Germans appear to have been in no mood for conciliation. There was a systematic endeavor to extirpate French from both the schools and official proceedings. That language was forbidden even "on signs and posters. Fines and imprisonment were used to repress manifestations of French sympathy in any form. Journals with French tendencies, and journals coming from France, were suppressed." All this, however, failed to make the population German. A new and flourishing German university at Strassburg, with German professors, has become a centre of patriotic German feeling. Coupled with the prosperity which the conquered provinces share with other parts of the empire, this educational influence seems gradually to be weakening the desire for re-annexation to France. For ten years past the feeling of the conquered is, perhaps, less bitter, and in time may cease altogether to exist.

The effect of excessive militarism?—16. What was the condition of the legal system of Germany in 1871? What three codes were prepared between 1877 and 1900?—17. How was German unity brought about? What discontented elements remained in the empire? How did Germany deal with the French element within the empire? What has been the extent of her success?

18. In the Polish part of the empire the efforts of the government have been much less successful. By Bismarck the Poles had been regarded as not only anti-German, but anti-imperial, and toward them he adopted a policy of repression. During 1885 and 1886, any new Poles settling in that part of Germany were expelled. The government also adopted a system of colonization. Two sums of $25,000,000 each have been appropriated for the purchase of Polish estates. On these German farmers have been settled, but the natural increase of population among the Poles is greater than among the Germans, and they are said to be even more thrifty. In local trade they would, therefore, become keen competitors. This, with differences of race, religion, and language, would tend to produce much bitterness of feeling.

In the schools which have been taken over by the state, the German language is taught. The speech of the home and of the street, however, is Polish. The national spirit is kept alive by Polish societies. Not much progress has been made in Teutonizing this part of the empire. In 1907, the Germanization of Poland was carried on with more activity than ever, and measures were proposed which have shocked the civilized world. Polish newspapers were confiscated, and their editors imprisoned; fines were imposed for holding Polish meetings, and peasants were not allowed to build houses upon their own land. There is mentioned one Polish family that was compelled to live in a gypsy cart. On November 26, 1907, was introduced the most drastic measure yet devised for crushing out the Polish nationality.

19. After the war with France, the industrial development of Germany became enormous. From 1871 to 1874, as many factories were built as in the preceding seventy years. This tended to separate still more the rich and the poor. The communistic teachings of Karl Marx, and others, were not without influence in promoting the growth of the Socialist party. The financial crisis of 1873, by throwing out of employment great numbers, and by sweeping away the savings of workingmen, resulted in adding to the discontent. It was

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18. Are the Poles more reconciled than the French? What was Bismarck's policy toward them? Was colonization successful? How do the Poles keep alive a national feeling? What harsh measures have been adopted to Teutonize the Poles?—19. What can you say of the industrial development of Germany after 1871? Who was the great exponent of Socialism in Germany?

not till 1890, however, that the government proceeded against them. Of their publications, one thousand four hundred were suppressed; one thousand five hundred persons were imprisoned, and nine hundred banished from the country. Since then, a more conciliatory policy has been adopted. Of the single political parties in the empire the Socialist is the strongest. In 1903, the total vote polled by it was three million two hundred and fifty thousand.

20. The astonishing industrial and military development of Germany has been equalled by its intellectual progress. Its splendid system of education has attracted students from every quarter of the globe. From the United States there are always great numbers attending the principal universities. These bring home with them the best pedagogical ideas in the empire, and in the last quarter of a century have contributed greatly to improve with us both secondary and higher institutions of learning. In this respect, our debt to Germany is immense, and this influence will tend gradually to make more friendly our relations with that great nation.

When did the government proceed against the Social Democrats? What is their number in the empire?—20. Has Germany made progress in any line of activity except in a military and an industrial way? How has education in the United States been influenced by Germany?

BOOK XIV

RUSSIA

CHAPTER I

EARLY HISTORY.

THE early history of Russia, which is greatly involved in obscurity, is marked by few events of importance. In the fifteenth century, John Basilowitz recovered the country from the dominion of the Tartars, and united a great part of it into one monarchy. But civilization made little progress in Russia until the reign of Peter the Great, who, at the age of seventeen, ascended the throne in 1689, and assumed the title of Emperor. To this illustrious monarch Russia is indebted for all her present greatness. His youth was spent in dissipation, and his education was much neglected; but on ascending the throne, he displayed talent and ability which have ranked him among the greatest of the sovereigns of Europe.

2. Peter's first military expedition was against the Turks, whom he signally defeated, and returning to Moscow, after the capture of Azof, he caused to be struck the first medals that were ever seen in Russia. In order to improve and polish the manners of his court, he sent a number of his young nobility to travel, and to acquire a knowledge of foreign countries. After this he resolved to go himself and visit the various states of Europe, in order to profit by his own personal experience and observations. In the capacity of a private person, attended by one of the nobles of his court, he travelled through Germany to Holland. At Amsterdam he

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CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the early history of Russia? In the fifteenth century? What is said of civilization? How was Peter the Great's youth spent?—2. What was his first military expedition? To improve the manners of his court, what did he do? After this, what did he resolve? How did he travel?

engaged himself as a workman in the dock-yard, under the name of Peter Michaeloff. From Holland he passed into England, where he was similarly employed, and where he made still greater improvement. At the end of sixteen months, he returned to his own dominions, carrying with him the fruit of his experience, which he successfully employed for the benefit of his subjects.

3. In 1711, Peter married Catharine, a young and beautiful girl, the daughter of a peasant of Ringen, a small village in Livonia. At this period, Charles XII, king of Sweden, the most renowned warrior of his age, who had astonished all Europe by the brilliancy of his conquests, invaded Russia, at the head of a powerful army. Without any loss of time, Peter hastened to oppose his progress. They met in the famous battle of Pultowa, in which the Swedish monarch was signally defeated, with the loss of nine thousand of his army killed, and fourteen thousand taken prisoners. The other important events of his reign were the destruction of the Streltsi, a body of troops resembling the Turkish Janizaries; the building of the city of St. Petersburg, and the institution of a numerous and powerful army. He died at the age of fifty-three, in 1725 —not without some suspicions of having been poisoned by the Empress.

4. As a sovereign, Peter was unquestionably great; but as a man, he possessed many qualities that degraded his private character. He is said to have been cruel, passionate, and intemperate.

The Empress, having ascended the throne under the title of Catharine I, was succeeded, after a prosperous reign of two years, by Peter II, grandson of Peter I. After a short and peaceful reign, he left the throne to his niece, Anne, Duchess of Courland. The term of her rule was prosperous, and added to the strength of the empire. Her generals gained a number of important victories over the Turks, and conquered several towns in Crim Tartary. On her death, John, an infant only a few months old, succeeded to the throne; but, by a sudden revolution, the young prince was deposed,

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Where was he employed? When did he return to his own dominions?—3. Whom did Peter marry? What is said of Charles XII? Where did they meet? What were the other principal events of his reign? When did he die?—4. What is said of Peter? By whom was the empress succeeded? To whom did he leave the throne? What was her reign? To whom did she leave the throne? What revolution took place?

and Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, was proclaimed Empress.

5. Elizabeth reigned more brilliantly than any of her predecessors, with the exception of her father. She was a princess possessed of eminent ability and political talents. Her army was completely victorious over the Swedes, and her alliance was courted by Great Britain.

She was succeeded by her nephew, Peter III, a weak and indolent prince. He had married Catharine, a German princess, who, having discovered that it was his intention to confine her for life, and to marry a lady of his court, entered into a conspiracy with her favorite, Count Orloff, against her husband, who was accordingly deposed, and afterwards assassinated.

6. Catharine was immediately proclaimed Empress, under the title of Catharine II. Her reign was the most splendid in the history of Russia. She introduced elegance and refinement into her empire; encouraged arts and manufactures, and enlarged her dominions by extending her conquests over Poland, the Crimea, and other territories. As an Empress, she possessed extraordinary talents for government; but her total disregard of justice, in her conduct towards defenceless Poland, has stamped upon her public character an indelible stain; her private life was a disgrace to her sex. She was succeeded by her son, Paul, whose short and tyrannical reign was terminated by assassination, A. D. 1801.

CHAPTER II

RUSSIA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

ALEXANDER I, the late Emperor's eldest son, who next succeeded to the throne, was a wise and popular sovereign. During his reign, the power of Russia was extended, and public improvement promoted. Alexander, alarmed at the progress of Napoleon, joined with Austria against him.

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5. What is said of her reign? By whom was she succeeded? Whom did he marry? What is related of her?—6. What was Catharine proclaimed? What did she do? What did she possess? By whom was she succeeded?

CHAPTER II.—1. What is said of Alexander I? Whom did he join against Napoleon?

But, after many desperate battles, the Russian monarch was compelled to sign the peace of Tilsit. In 1812, upon the refusal of Alexander to concur in the scheme of the Emperor of France, for excluding British commerce from the continent of Europe, Napoleon invaded Russia at the head of a powerful army. At Borodino, near Moscow, was fought one of the most terrible battles recorded in history. When the French Emperor made his disastrous retreat from Moscow, Alexander pursued the enemy beyond the limits of his empire, and entered Paris with the other allied sovereigns, where Napoleon was dethroned.

2. Alexander died in 1825, and was succeeded by his brother, Nicholas, whose reign was marked by tyranny, brutality, and restless ambition. A full stop was now put to the rapid advance of the empire's real prosperity. Wars were declared against Persia and Turkey, and a long and deadly struggle commenced with the Caucasian mountaineers—all for the ill-concealed object of extending the power of Russia. Success in all these quarters only whetted the Emperor's appetite for more spoil. In 1830, he converted unfortunate Poland into a Russian province; in 1849, he aided Austria in quelling the insurrection in Hungary; and in 1853 his irresistible craving for more territory plunged him into the Crimean war, in which France and England punished him pretty severely, and put an end to his lawless ambition. Before the end of the conflict Nicholas died, and Russia suffered immense loss of military prestige, and was almost drained of her vast resources of men and money.

3. On the accession of Alexander II, in 1855, one of his first acts was the conclusion of the peace of Paris, by which Russia lost the right of navigation on the Danube, a strip of territory to the north of that river, and the unrestricted navigation of the Black Sea. His reign, however, was one of considerable progress. Alexander's first great reform was the abolition of serfdom. In 1861, imperial decrees were published which conferred freedom upon forty-eight millions of Rus-

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With what result? What took place in 1812? What occurred at Borodino? When Napoleon retreated, what did Alexander do?—2. When did Alexander die, and who succeeded him? What marked the reign of Nicholas? Against whom did he declare war, and with what success? What occurred in 1830? 1849? 1853? What took place before the end of the conflict?—3. Who succeeded Nicholas? What was one of his first acts? His first great reform, and when?

EUROPE
1880.
SCALE OF MILES
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30 Longitude 20 West 10 0 10 Long
60
50
40
Longitude
67 77 87
ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
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NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
BAY OF BISCAY
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ICELAND
REYKJAVIK
HECLA
JAN MAYEN I.
North Cape
ARCTIC CIRCLE
FAROE IS.
SHETLAND IS.
Christiansand
Bergen
CHRISTIANIA
STOCKHOLM
Lake Malar
Glasgow
Stirling
Kilkirk
EDINBURGH
Belfast
Irish Sea
DUBLIN
Cork
C. Clear
Liverpool
Manchester
Birmingham
LONDON
Amsterdam
The Hague
Utrecht
Land's End
English Channel
DENMARK
COPENHAGEN
SCHLESWIG
HOLSTEIN
Hamburg
Bremen
Hanover
Münster
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Brussels
Antwerp
Ghent
PRUSSIA
BERLIN
Dresden
Leipzig
Frankfort
Jena
Saxony
Prague
BOHEMIA
BAVARIA
Munich
Strasburg
PARIS
Nantes
Loire R.
Tours
Seine R.
Rhine R.
Lyons
Rhone R.
Mt. Cenis
SWITZERLAND
BERNE
VIENNA
AUSTRIA
Milan
Venice
Trieste
Bologna
Florence
Genoa
Gulf of Genoa
Marseilles
Gulf of Lyons
CORSICA
ROME
Naples
MT. VESUVIUS
Brindisi
Sardinia
Palermo
SICILY
Bay of Biscay
C. Ortegal
Oporto
Leon
PORTUGAL
LISBON
MADRID
SPAIN
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Barcelona
C. St. Vincent
Murcia
Seville
Cadiz
Str. of Gibraltar
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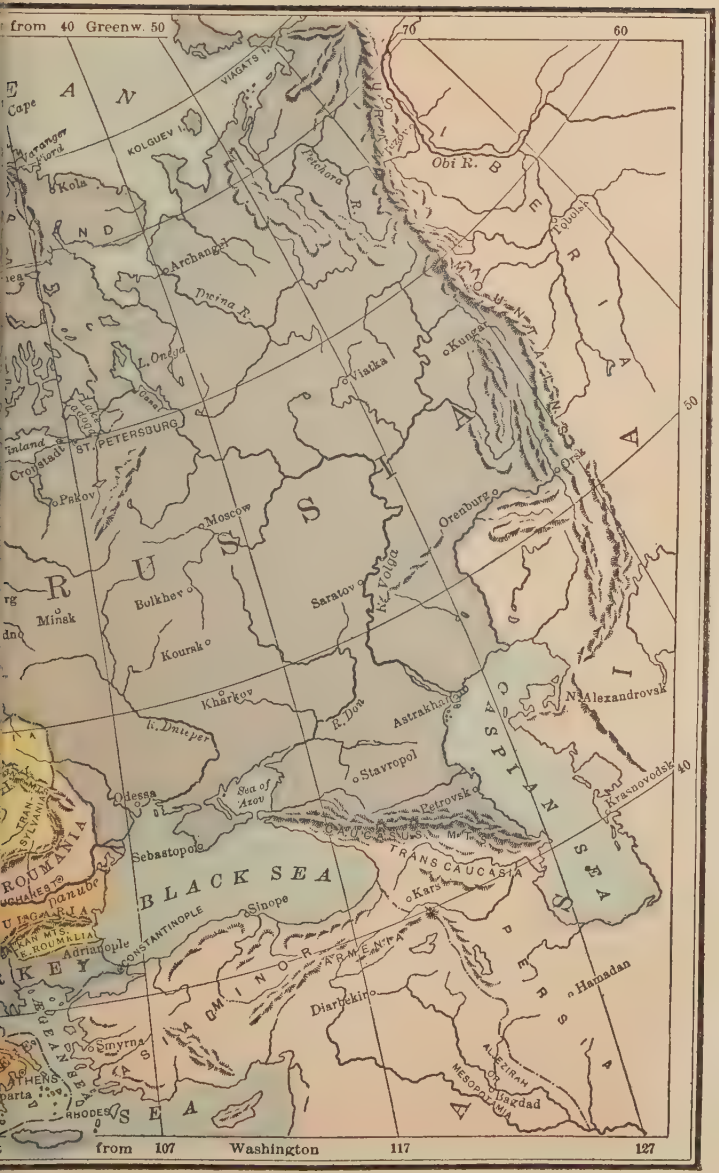
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70
60
Cape
KOLGUEV I.
Kola
Archangel
Dwina R.
Petchora R.
Obi R.
Obdorsk
L. Onega
Canal
Viatka
Kungur
Perm
Ural Mts.
ASIA
50
Finland
Cronstadt
ST. PETERSBURG
Pskov
Moscow
Orenburg
RUSSIA
Minsk
Bulkhov
Saratov
R. Volga
Koursk
Kharkov
R. Don
Astrakhan
N. Alexandrovsk
R. Dnieper
Stavropol
Odessa
Sea of Azov
CASPIAN SEA
Krasnovodsk
40
Petrovsk
Sebastopole
BLACK SEA
TRANSCAUCASIA
ROUMANIA
Danube
Sinope
Kars
CONSTANTINOPLE
Adrianople
ASIA MINOR
ARMENIA
Diarbekir
Hamadan
PERSIA
Smyrna
Algeirah
Mesopotamia
Bagdad
ATHENS
Rhodes
SEA
from 107 Washington 117 127

sian peasants.* The insurrection in Poland 1863-4, was suppressed with true Russian brutality. Four years later Poland was incorporated with Russia, and rigorous measures were instituted to suppress the Polish language. In 1867, Russia sold her North American territory to the United States for $7,000,000. A diplomatic note was addressed to the European powers in 1870, protesting against those articles of the treaty of Paris which neutralized the Black Sea. A conference of the Powers in 1871 partially acceded to the claims of Russia.

4. The barbarities permitted by the Turks against the Slavonic Christians of Bulgaria excited the detestation of the rest of Europe. Russia championed the cause of the Slavs, and (1877) declared war against Turkey. It was bravely fought. Generals Gurko and Skobeleff were heroes on the Russian side; Osman Pasha and Suleiman Pasha, heroes on the other. The first encounters were rather favorable to the Turks, but in the end they were severely defeated. The Russians advanced upon Constantinople, and war closed with the treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878).

5. But the other great powers, taking alarm at Russia's success, and fearing she was about to seize Constantinople, which, as the military key to Eastern Europe, had been the goal of her ambition for centuries, assembled a congress at Berlin (forcing Russia to be a party), where the treaty of San Stefano was modified, and the fruits of victory materially lost to Russia. By the provisions of the Berlin treaty, Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro, with large territorial additions, were declared independent principalities. Russia received accessions both in Asia and along her southeastern borders. Bulgaria (with altered boundaries) became a Christian principality, tributary to the Porte. The province of Eastern Roumelia was created, to be ruled by a Christian

* The Russian word which we translate serf carries merely the idea of being fixed to one locality. Their Tartar instincts impelled the peasants to roam about, to the ruinous neglect of agriculture. They were originally made serfs—at the close of the sixteenth century—for no worse purpose than of restraining this wasteful indulgence, and obliging them to stay at home and till their fields. Even now the emancipated Russian peasant may not go from home without the permission of the chief, whom the villagers elect.—Mackenzie.

What occurred in 1863-4? Four years later? What was sold in 1867? What is said of a diplomatic note of 1870?—4. What caused the war with Turkey? Who were the heroes? What was the result?—5. State the provisions of the Berlin treaty.

governor. Austria got Bosnia and Herzegovina, and civil rights were guaranteed to non-Mohammedans in the Turkish empire.

6. The Nihilists, who had shown marked activity in 1878, made, the following year, an attempt on the life of the Emperor. The attempt was renewed in 1880. It was successful in 1881. Alexander II was assassinated. His son succeeded as Alexander III, the coronation being commemorated at Moscow in 1883.

In 1884, Russia extended her Asiatic possessions by the subjugation of the Tekke-Turkomans. The year 1891 is notable for the expulsion of the Jews, and for a widespread and most disastrous famine, followed by an epidemic of cholera. These scourges swept away thousands.

Alexander III died in 1894, and was succeeded by his son, Nicholas II, who was crowned at Moscow in 1896 with such ceremonial pomp and magnificent display as the world had never seen. He promised a more liberal rule, but the promise has not been performed. In 1898 he surprised the world by proposing an international conference for the reduction of armaments. This conference met at The Hague, Holland, in the summer of 1899, but effected little.

7. Russia is an absolute monarchy. All power—legislative, executive, judicial, and ecclesiastical—centres in the Emperor. His will is the law of Russia. He appoints and dismisses all the officers, by whom his wishes are executed, and is responsible to no one for his actions. Thus eighty-five millions of people have surrendered to a single family all control over the management of their vast national interests. Russia has nine universities and a public school system; but the great majority of the people never see the inside of a school. Nihilistic, communistic, and other revolutionary organizations flourish secretly in the cities in spite of severe laws. Nicholas II gives laws to the most gigantic empire in the world, covering one-seventh of the earth's surface, but he lives in daily fear of assassination. His people are neither free nor happy.

8. In 1904 was commenced the disastrous war with Japan. A somewhat detailed account of its cause and conduct will

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6. By whom was Alexander II assassinated? Who succeeded him? What happened in 1884? What in 1891? What followed the famine? —7. What is said of the form of government? Education? Nihilists, Communists? Alexander III and his people?—8. In what disastrous war did Russia engage in 1904?

be given in the section which treats of the remarkable progress of that nation. For the present, it is sufficient to state that Russia had been in occupation of the Chinese province of Manchuria, and was exercising in the internal affairs of Korea very great influence. In that kingdom, Japan had important interests, commercial and other, and objected to seeing the country Russianized. After tedious negotiations, diplomatic relations were suddenly broken off by Japan, and operations, both military and naval, were commenced at once. The internal conditions in both countries, and the influence of President Roosevelt, brought about peace between the belligerents.

9. By the terms of the treaty, Russia lost her foothold in both Manchuria and Korea; she was also compelled to cede to Japan a portion of the large island of Sakhalin. The treaty was acceptable to neither the Japanese nor the Russians, but circumstances compelled both governments to accept its provisions.

10. In Russia there was trouble in both Finland and Poland. There was also, among the Russian subjects of the Czar, much unrest. Riots, strikes, and the assassination of prominent government officials, led to the establishment of a consultative body, called the Duma. In the English, or in the American sense, the assembly is not a legislative body, but merely one possessing powers of recommendation. Its establishment, however, temporarily appeased the people. On October 31, 1905, an imperial manifesto granted a sort of constitutional government. It appointed a premier, extended the suffrage, and removed some restrictions upon the freedom of the press. Nevertheless, rioting, mutiny, and Semitic outrages soon followed, and the entire country seemed to be drifting rapidly toward anarchy. On July 23, 1906, the Duma was dissolved, by an imperial manifesto. It adjourned to Viborg, in Finland, whence it in turn issued a manifesto.

11. The dissolution of the Duma was succeeded by something like a reign of terror; the number of assassinations was appalling, and even the premier himself was attacked in his villa. Though he escaped, more than thirty of those around him were killed.

What led to it? What influences made for peace?—9. What was the loss to Russia? How was the treaty received in both countries?—10. What were the internal conditions in Russia? What was the effect of the establishment of the Duma? What imperial manifesto was issued in 1905? Did the Duma obey the order to adjourn?—11. What followed the dissolution of the Duma?

12. The firmness of Premier Stolypin has restored a measure of order, but the administration of affairs even yet is far from normal. During September 8 and 9, 1906, there occurred at Siedlice, in Poland, frightful massacres of Jews and terrorists. The minister, indeed, has promised relief to the former, though as yet he has accomplished but little in their behalf. Though no eye can pierce its future, conditions are slowly improving in the empire.

12. By whom was order partially restored? When did the massacre of Jews and terrorists take place? Is there ground for hope for the future of Russia?

BOOK XV

PORTUGAL, POLAND, SWEDEN AND NORWAY, DENMARK, SWITZERLAND, HOLLAND, BELGIUM, MODERN GREECE, TURKEY.

CHAPTER I

PORTUGAL.

THE history of Portugal, the most westerly kingdom of Europe, is closely united with that of Spain. It shared in all the vicissitudes of that nation, being successively overrun by the Romans, Goths, and Moors. About the year 1094 Alfonso, king of Castile, bestowed that part of Portugal which he possessed, with his daughter, in marriage, on Henry, Duke of Burgundy, who had rendered him important services during his contest with the Moors. Henry was succeeded by his son, Alfonso, who defeated the Moors in a great battle at Orique, threw off the Castilian yoke, and assumed the title of king, A. D. 1139.

2. The reign of John I is distinguished by his victories over the Castilians and Moors, but more particularly for the progress that the Portuguese made in navigation. During the reign of John II, Bartholomew Diaz discovered the Cape of Good Hope; and in a few years after this event, Vasco da Gama doubled that Cape, and was the first navigator that accomplished a voyage to the Indies, A. D. 1497. The era from the reign of John I, down to the year 1580, forms the most brilliant period of Portuguese history. It is illustrated by several important discoveries, and also by the production of several men of learning and genius.

3. In 1580, Philip II, of Spain, taking advantage of the weakness of Portugal, occasioned by the extinction of the male line of the royal family, seized upon the country, and united it to his dominions; by the revolution of 1640, the Spaniards were expelled, and the Duke of Braganza, the presumptive heir, was raised to the throne, under the title of

CHAPTER I.—1. What is said of the history of Portugal? About the year 1094, what took place? Who succeeded Henry? What did Alfonso do?—2. For what is the reign of John I distinguished? During the reign of John II, what was done?—3. In 1580, what did Philip II do? In 1640, what was done?

John IV. In 1807, Portugal was invaded by the French, on which occasion King John VI and the royal family removed to Brazil, where they remained until the year 1820, when John again returned to Lisbon, leaving Dom Pedro, his eldest son, as regent of that country. In 1823, Brazil renounced its allegiance to Portugal, and was declared an independent empire, under Dom Pedro, who assumed the title of Emperor. On the death of John VI, the throne of Portugal became vacant. Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil, resigned his claim to the crown in favor of his daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, appointing his sister, Isabella, regent during the infancy of the young queen; but Dom Miguel, a younger brother of Pedro, usurped the throne in 1828.

4. The usurper, however, was subsequently expelled, and, in 1833, the crown was restored to the lawful heir. For the next twenty years, the history of Portugal is made up of party contention and political disorder. The death of the queen, in 1853, brought her eldest son, Pedro V, to the throne, under the regency of his father.

5. Pedro died suddenly in 1861, and his brother, Louis I, became king. Louis was a man of taste and learning, and his reign wrought many improvements in the condition of Portugal. In 1876, the slaves on the islands of St. Thomas and Cape Verde were set free. In 1889, Louis I died, and was succeeded by his son, Charles, who, with the crown prince, was assassinated, February 1, 1908. The second son of Charles succeeded to the throne, as Manuel II.

6. Portugal has a number of colonial establishments, chiefly in Africa. Within recent years their management has given more or less trouble. In 1890, Portugal was forced to yield to the demands of England in a dispute respecting sovereignty in the southeastern part of Africa. The Catholic religion is established, but all other forms of worship are tolerated. There is one university at Coimbra, and the public school system is general. Official dishonesty prevails, and in consequence there is great discontent.

In 1807, by whom was Portugal invaded? What did the royal family do? In 1823, what did Brazil do? In whose favor did Pedro resign his claim? What followed? When was the usurper expelled? What was the state of Portugal from 1833 to 1853? What occurred in 1853? In 1861? What is said of Louis I? Of religion? Of education?—5. When did Pedro die? Who became king? What is said of Louis I? What event in 1876? By whom and when was Louis I succeeded?—6. What is said of Portugal's colonial establishments? What incident in 1890? **What is said of Portugal's religious and educational condition?**

CHAPTER II

POLAND.

ALTHOUGH the name of Poland has been stricken from the list of states, by the ruthless hand of grasping tyranny, that name will ever awaken feelings of respectful sympathy in all who honor courage and patriotism. Founded in the sixth century, this kingdom attained some preëminence only in the early part of the fifteenth century, when the throne was filled by Casimir III, surnamed the Great. This illustrious prince founded the University of Cracow, patronized learning, encouraged industry, and commerce, and furnished the nation with a new code of written laws. Under the reign of Sigismund I, who was a great and accomplished sovereign, Poland reached the meridian of her greatness. But of all the sovereigns who swayed the Polish sceptre none have been more distinguished than John Sobieski, who succeeded to the throne in 1674. He was elected, not because of hereditary right, but on account of his virtues and eminent military talents. He maintained a successful war against the Turks, and immortalized his name by obliging them to raise the siege of Vienna. He died in 1696, leaving the country prosperous and happy.

2. Frederick Augustus, elector of Saxony, was chosen to succeed Sobieski, after an interregnum of twelve months. Shortly after his accession, he declared war against Charles XII, king of Sweden; but being defeated, he was dethroned, and through the influence of Charles, at the Diet of Warsaw, Stanislaus was elected to the throne in his place; but after the defeat of the Swedish monarch at the battle of Pultowa, Augustus was again restored to the throne. The reign of his son, Frederick Augustus II, was generally tranquil.

3. In 1763, Stanislaus Augustus was elected king of Poland, through the influence of Catharine, Empress of Rus-

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CHAPTER II.—1. What is remarked of the name of Poland? When was the kingdom founded, and under whom did it attain preëminence? What did this prince do? What is said of Sobieski? Why was he elected? What did he maintain?—2. Who was chosen to succeed him? What did he declare? What was the result? What happened after the defeat of the Swedish monarch at the battle of Pultowa?—3. In 1763, who was elected?

sia. Civil commotions soon distracted the kingdom. Unhappily, the malcontents were encouraged by the surrounding powers, who secretly increased the factions and difficulties in which the state was involved, in order that they might the more effectually accomplish its ruin. In 1772 was perpetrated one of the most unjust and tyrannical acts recorded in history; namely, the dismemberment of Poland by Russia, Prussia, and Austria. These three powers, taking advantage of the disorders and weakness of the kingdom, agreed to divide it among themselves, and the unjust and wicked transaction was accomplished.

4. In the first division, Frederick the Great seized upon Polish Prussia and a part of Great Poland. The Empress Catharine received Polish Livonia and a part of Lithuania; while Galicia and Lodomeria fell to the share of the Emperor of Austria. After an ineffectual struggle, unhappy Poland was obliged to submit to this dismemberment, and to sanction, by a legislative act, the injustice that these powers had committed against her. In 1791, a revolution took place in Poland. A new constitution was formed, in which the crown, which had hitherto been elective, was declared hereditary, a measure which met the entire approbation of the people.

5. The Empress of Russia, displeased with the new constitution, because it opposed her ambitious views, ordered her troops to invade the Polish dominions. The Poles flew to arms in defence of the rights and liberties of their country. They chose for their general the brave and patriotic Kosciusko, who had borne a distinguished part in the war of American independence.

For some time they withstood the united forces of their enemies; but at length, overpowered by numbers, they were defeated, and the gallant Kosciusko was taken prisoner. Warsaw was taken and sacked by Suwarrow, the brutal Russian general, and nine thousand Poles perished in defence of their capital. A new partition was now agreed on among Russia, Prussia, and Austria, which included a considerable part of the remaining portion of the Polish territory, A. D. 1793.

6. Stanislaus, the last of the Polish monarchs, worn out

What followed? In 1772, what was perpetrated?—4. How were the divisions made? What was Poland obliged to do? In 1791, what took place?—5. What is said of the Empress of Russia? Of the Poles? Whom did they choose for their general? What is said of Warsaw? What was now agreed on?—6. What is said of Stanislaus?

with age and infirmity, was compelled to resign his crown at Grodno, where he died in captivity, during the year 1795. This event broke the spirit of the Poles. A final division followed, by which the rapacious powers seized upon the remaining parts of the country. Thus ill-fated Poland, by acts of the vilest tyranny, has been blotted out from the list of states. During the reign of the Emperor Nicholas, an ineffectual struggle was made by the Poles to regain the liberty of their country. From January till September, 1831, a series of bloody conflicts was fought, in which the Prussians and Austrians, with a subservience that was truly pitiable, aided the autocrat of "all the Russias." The Poles battled with desperate bravery against such overwhelming odds; but tyrannical might triumphed, and they were crushed to the earth. The outbreaks of 1833, 1846, 1861, and 1863 were punished by the gallows, transportation to the wilds of Siberia, and unheard-of cruelties. Whether Poland shall ever again take its place among the states of Europe, is one of the secrets concealed in the bosom of time. The future alone can reveal it.

CHAPTER III

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

THE early history of Sweden is obscure and unimportant. Together with Norway, it formed a part of ancient Scandinavia, and was first inhabited by the Cimbri, a race of German origin. Christianity was not introduced until the Middle Ages. In the latter part of the fourteenth century, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway were united into one kingdom by Margaret of Sweden, who has been styled the Semiramis of the North, in allusion to the greatness of the ancient queen of Assyria. During the reign of Christian II, king of Denmark, a revolution took place, by which the Swedes were delivered from the Danish yoke, and Gustavus Vasa, a descendant of the ancient kings, was raised to the

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What followed? During the reign of Nicholas, what was made? What is said of the conflicts of 1831? How did the Poles battle? What is said of later outbreaks?

CHAPTER III.—1. What is said of the early history? In the fourteenth century, what was done? During the reign of Christian, what took place?

throne of Sweden in 1527. Though in many respects an able ruler, who did much for the material progress and prosperity of his kingdom, he withdrew it from the Catholic religion and introduced Lutheranism.

2. Gustavus Adolphus, a grandson of Gustavus Vasa, and one of the greatest of the Swedish monarchs, succeeded to the throne in 1611. He was eminent as a statesman, and is ranked among the most famous and successful generals of his age. He was victorious in his war against Denmark, Russia, and Poland. In a war with the Imperialists, he defeated them in the battle of Leipsic in 1632; and again in that of Lutzen, in which he lost his life. He was succeeded by his daughter, Christina, who governed Sweden with much prudence and wisdom until the year 1654, when she resigned the crown to her cousin, Charles Gustavus, left her country, and devoted the remainder of her days to the pursuit of science and literature, first at Paris, and finally at Rome, where she died, having previously embraced the faith of her fathers—the Catholic religion.

3. Charles XII, sometimes styled the Madman of the North, ascended the throne of Sweden in 1697, at the age of fifteen years. Shortly after his accession, he found his kingdom attacked in three different quarters, by Russia, Denmark, and Poland. With a courage and resolution not to be expected from a youth of seventeen, Charles successively took the field against these powers, and completely defeated their forces. One of the most memorable victories recorded in history, he obtained at Narva, where, with only eight thousand men, he defeated the Russian army of eighty thousand, of whom thirty thousand were taken prisoners.

4. Having reduced Courland and Lithuania, he entered Poland, took Warsaw and Cracow. A negotiation having been proposed on the part of Russia, Charles abruptly replied that he would treat at Moscow, then the capital of the Russian empire. Accordingly, in the midst of a severe winter, he invaded Russia, and advanced with his army as far as Pultowa, where he was met by his great rival, Peter the Great. A tremendous engagement followed, and the Swedes suffered a

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2. What is said of Gustavus? Where did he lose his life? By whom was he succeeded? In 1632, what did she do?—3. Who ascended the throne in 1697? After his accession, what did he find? What memorable victory did he obtain?—4. Having reduced Courland, what did he do? When did he invade Russia? Where and by whom was he met? After this, where did Charles retire?

total defeat. Charles fled with the shattered remnant of his army into Turkey, where he displayed the conduct of a maniac, rather than that of a wise general and prudent prince. Being ordered to leave Turkey he refused to comply and proceeded to fortify his camp. With only three thousand men, he defended himself for some time against twenty thousand Turks, and only yielded when he was taken by the arm and led forcibly to the tent of the Pasha.

5. Having at length returned from Turkey, he resolved upon the conquest of Norway. Accordingly, at the head of his army, he invaded that country in the month of October, and with eighteen thousand men laid siege to Frederickshall. On the 30th of November, 1718, as he visited the trenches for the purpose of encouraging and animating his men, he stood with his arm resting upon the parapet, while the enemy poured a shower of balls upon the spot where he stood. In this exposed situation Charles remained for some time, apparently unconscious of his danger; at length he was struck by a cannon-ball in the temple, and fell with a groan against the parapet. While in the act of falling, he grasped with his right hand the hilt of his sword, as if to avenge the blow, an action which forcibly displayed the leading characteristic of his mind.

6. After the death of Charles, Sweden enjoyed comparative repose under the reign of his sister, Ulrica, and also under that of her husband, the Prince of Hesse, to whom she resigned her crown. On his death Adolphus Frederick was elected to the throne. His reign was somewhat disturbed by the factions of the senate. In 1771, Gustavus III having succeeded to the throne, deprived the senate of its power and rendered himself absolute; he made, however, a moderate use of his authority, and the rest of his reign was passed in tranquillity. He was assassinated while attending a masquerade ball in 1792.

7. Adolphus was succeeded by his son, Gustavus IV, under the regency of the Duke of Sudermania. After a weak and extravagant reign he was dethroned, and the crown was transferred to the Duke of Sudermania, who assumed the title of

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Being ordered to leave Turkey, what did he do?—5. What did he resolve? At what season did he invade the country? On the 11th of December, what did he do? In the act of falling, what did he do?—6. On the death of Charles, what is said of Sweden? In 1771, who succeeded? Of what did he deprive the senate? How did he die?—7. To whom was the crown transferred?

Charles XIII, A. D. 1809. But this king having no children, Bernadotte,* a favorite general of Napoleon, was, through the Emperor's influence, declared crown prince, obtained the right of succession, and, on the death of Charles, quietly succeeded to the throne as Charles XIV, A. D. 1818. Before this time, Norway was taken from Denmark and annexed to Sweden.

8. Under Bernadotte's able administration the united kingdoms of Sweden and Norway made great advances in material prosperity, as well as in political affairs. It is, indeed, true that the people in general entertained very little affection for their strange sovereign; but his son and successor, Oscar, and his grandsons, King Charles XV, and King Oscar II, who came to the throne in 1872, have so identified themselves with their subjects that the Bernadotte dynasty is firmly established on the throne of Gustavus Adolphus. King Oscar II died on December 8, 1907, greatly beloved and much lamented by the Swedish nation. He was succeeded by his son, Gustaf V, the present ruler.

9. Sweden is an hereditary and constitutional monarchy. In religion the king must be a Lutheran. The Diet, or legislative assembly, is composed of an upper house and a lower house—both elected by the people. Electors must be twenty-one years of age, and have a small property or income. The great body of the people are Lutherans in belief, and none but a Lutheran can hold any position in the public service. Attendance at school is compulsory for all children.

10. The political union between Sweden and Norway was effected in 1814. The constitution binding them resembles strongly that of the United States, yet reverses it in one important particular—that, while general legislative powers are exercised by the Diet, or congress of the union, the Diets of the individual states are bound by specified powers; whereas

* He was a native of France, and his full name was John Baptist Julius Bernadotte. He was born a Catholic, but on becoming King of Sweden he had the meanness to change both his name and his religion.

Through the emperor's influence, who was declared crown prince, and when did he ascend the throne?—8. What is remarked of Bernadotte's administration? Of his successors?—9. What kind of a monarchy is Sweden? What must the king be? Describe the Diet. How must electors be qualified? What is said of religion and education?—10. When was the union between Norway and Sweden effected? How does the constitution differ from that of the United States?

in America it is the Congress of the United States that has specified or enumerated powers, while the legislatures of the individual states exercise general powers—that is, all those powers not granted to the government of the Union. The tendency in Norway has long been more and more towards autonomy, or home rule, in all things not set forth in the Act of Union.

11. The Norwegians have been famous in every age as bold and successful navigators. By way of Iceland they first set foot, in the eleventh century, on the northern coast of North America; and it was a Norwegian, Nordenskjö, who, in 1879, made the remarkable voyage to China through the Arctic Ocean and Behring Strait. The Norwegians are well known for their honesty and uprightness of character. Many have found homes in the northwestern part of the United States.

12. On June 7, 1905, the Storthing, or legislative assembly of Norway, formally declared the union with Sweden dissolved. It was generally believed that the latter power would forcibly resist this secession. Its king, however, urged peace. The maintenance of the union by force, it was said, "would make it a source of weakness instead of strength." The Swedish Riksdag accepted this view.

Norway immediately agreed to a referendum, which resulted in a vote of three hundred and sixty-eight thousand two hundred in favor of separation. Only one hundred and eighty-four persons voted in favor of a continuance of the union. Hakon VII, a Danish prince, was crowned king of Norway, in June, 1906. He was chosen by the Storthing on November 18, 1905.

CHAPTER IV

DENMARK.

THE history of Denmark begins to emerge from obscurity during the reign of Waldemar I, who obtained the throne in 1157, after a ten years' contest with his competitor. He laid the foundation of the city of Dantzic, and subdued the

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11. For what have the Norwegians been famous? What did they do in the fifteenth century? In 1879? What is said of their moral character?—12. What important event occurred on June 7, 1905? How did Sweden regard the step taken by Norway?

CHAPTER IV.—1. When does the history of Denmark begin to emerge from obscurity?

Courlanders. In 1387, Queen Margaret, a woman of extraordinary ability, ascended the Danish throne. She united Sweden, Norway, and Denmark in one kingdom, and governed them with much prudence and wisdom. In 1448, Christian, Count of Aldenberg, from whom the present royal family are descended, succeeded to the throne.

2. The government was originally elective, and continued so until the year 1660, during the reign of Frederick III, when, by the voice of the people, it was changed into an hereditary and absolute monarchy. During the reign of Frederick IV, Denmark waged a successful war against Charles XII, of Sweden, which was terminated, shortly after the death of that monarch, by the peace of Stockholm. During the reign of Christian VI, and Frederick V, the kingdom remained in a peaceful and prosperous condition. Christian VII, a weak and dissolute prince, having ascended the throne in 1766, married Caroline Matilda, sister of George III, of England. This unhappy princess, having been accused of harboring hostile designs against the government, in conjunction with Counts Brandt and Struensee, was arrested and sent to the castle of Bronenburg, with her infant daughter. The two unfortunate noblemen were immediately executed; Matilda, however, was removed to Zell in Hanover, where she died at the age of twenty-three years.

In 1801, after a long and prosperous peace, Denmark allied herself with several of the great European powers, and was soon involved in war with England. The result was the battle of Copenhagen, in which Admiral Nelson destroyed the Danish navy.

3. Frederick VI succeeded his father on the throne in 1808. During the first year of his reign, at a time when the country was at peace, the British fleet, under Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier, bombarded the city of Copenhagen, under the pretence that information had been received that Denmark intended to throw itself in favor of France. The Danish fleet, consisting of eighteen ships of the line, and sixteen frigates, was destroyed by the British. This completely paralyzed the nation.

Who ascended the throne in 1387? Who succeeded in 1448?—2. What is said of the original government? During the reign of Frederick IV, what is said of Denmark? What is said of Christian VII? What is related of this unhappy princess? Relate what happened in 1801.—3. When did Frederick VI succeed his father? What took place during his reign?

4. Denmark was compelled by the Congress of Vienna to cede Norway to Sweden. On the death of Frederick VII, in 1863, the late king, Prince Christian, of Schleswig-Holstein, ascended the throne under the title of Christian IX. The "Schleswig-Holstein question"—one of the most intricate in the politics of Europe—plunged the little kingdom into a war with Austria and Prussia. The Danes fought bravely, but were soon overwhelmed and compelled to submit to the terms of their powerful foes. Schleswig-Holstein and the duchy of Lauenburg were ceded to the German powers in 1864.

5. Although reduced to the narrow limits of the islands and Jutland since the war, Denmark has recovered from its fall, and enjoys a high degree of social and political freedom. The country has a very complete system of public instruction. Lutheranism is the established religion, and the king must be a member of that church. The national assembly consists of two houses, an upper and a lower.

6. The recent history of Denmark is distinguished by a steady development of the liberal and radical parties, and a desire for a more thorough parliamentary rule. The Danes have a well-earned reputation for industrious and frugal habits, and are a prosperous people. Yet many, to better their fortunes, have emigrated to the United States.

7. On January 29, 1906, King Christian died at the age of eight-eight years. He was the father of the queen of England, the king of Greece, the Empress Dowager of Russia, and the grandfather of Hakon VII, the king of Norway. He was a benevolent monarch, who regarded his people with parental fondness, and whose affections he always retained. He was succeeded on the throne of Denmark by his son, Frederick VIII, the present sovereign.

8. Iceland, the only important outlying possession of Denmark, has long had a legislature of its own, and in 1893 was given financial independence.

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4. What is said of Denmark and the congress of Vienna? Who was the next king, and when did he come to the throne? What caused a war with Austria and Prussia? How did it end?—5. What is the present condition of Denmark? Education? Religion? Government?—6. What distinguishes the recent history of Denmark? What is said of the character of the Danes? Where have many found homes?—7. What was the date of death and what was the character of King Christian?—8. What measure of independence is enjoyed by Iceland?

9. The teachings of political science would seem to indicate that, because of their geographical position, their ethnical relations, and their common religion, the Scandinavian peoples will ultimately form a permanent union. The separation of Norway and Sweden, by removing all causes of friction between them, merely serves to bring those states closer together. Since the defeat of Denmark, in 1864, the Pan-Scandinavian sentiment has been growing.

Even now these three states have one system of coinage, and many common financial and commercial regulations. There has been proposed a civil code for the three nations. A firm alliance will probably be the next step toward a permanent union. The influence of Germany or of Russia may, however, retard this seemingly inevitable step.

10. The Danish population of Schleswig-Holstein, though treated in a manner much more conciliatory than the Polish inhabitants of Germany, still have a grievance. In the schools instruction in the Danish language is forbidden, and proposals have been discussed looking to a settlement of Germans in that district.

CHAPTER V

HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

THE territories, now divided into the small kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, were formerly called the Netherlands, or low countries. At an early period of their history they were divided into various petty states, and governed by counts and earls. They were united to Germany subsequent to the reign of Charlemagne, but regained their independence in the tenth century. In 1443, they became subject to Burgundy, at which time they began to excite the attention of Europe because of their extensive manufactures and commerce. They were again transferred to the house of Austria by the Emperor Maximilian.

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9. What seems to be the destiny of the Scandinavian states? What will be the probable effect of the recent separation of Norway and Sweden? What are the indications of ultimate union? What influences may retard it?—10. What is the condition of Schleswig-Holstein?

CHAPTER V.—1. What were Holland and Belgium formerly called? How were they divided and governed at an early period? When were they united to the German empire? What took place in 1443?

2. In 1555, they were resigned by Charles V to his son, Philip II, of Spain, from whom they revolted and established their independence, under the title of the Seven United Provinces of Holland. Spain still retained possession of several smaller provinces until the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, when they were ceded to Austria. In 1795, the United Provinces were overrun and conquered by the French, on which occasion William V and his family were obliged to escape to England in a fishing-boat, and French rule began. After remaining for some time united to the French Empire, they were erected, on the fall of Napoleon I, into a kingdom, under the government of the Prince of Orange, who was styled King of the Netherlands.

3. In 1830, the dissatisfaction of the southern provinces broke into open revolution, and the kingdom of Belgium was established. Leopold I, a German prince, was called to the throne in 1831, and on his death, in 1865, he was succeeded by the present king, Leopold II.

a. In 1834, Belgium opened the first railway in Europe, and the enterprise shown by that fact has in no way diminished. With a foreign trade exceeding that of the whole Russian empire, she ranks commercially as sixth among the nations. Antwerp is one of the greatest ports of Europe. The great deposits of coal and iron form an important source of Belgium's wealth. Indeed, these are the richest on the continent. Her commercial policy has been very successful, and her colonial policy scarcely less so. The administration of the Congo Free State, it is true, has given rise to no little criticism in the world outside, but it is possible that the charges have been somewhat exaggerated by the religious bias of the accusers. This subject is still involved in much obscurity. In August, 1908, the king ceded the Congo State to the Belgian government.

b. As was the case many centuries ago with Brabant and Flanders, Belgium has again become the busiest, as well as the most densely settled country of Europe. Its teeming pop-

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2. To whom were they given in 1555? In 1795, what is said of them? What occurred on the fall of Napoleon?—3. In 1830, what new kingdom was established? Who was the first king? Who is the present king?—*a.* What people opened the first railway in Europe? What is the commercial position of Belgium? What are her chief sources of wealth? Has her colonial policy been generally successful?—*b.* What can you say of Belgium's industrial life and the density of her population?

ulation; its vast industries, its efficient system of education; and its great commercial enterprise, have made it one of the wealthiest and most prosperous of states. Nor has its advancement been wholly or even principally along material lines, for it should be remembered that the Belgians are keenly interested in literature and science.

4. For some time after the withdrawal of Belgium, the people of Holland showed much discontent toward their government. In 1840, the old king abdicated in favor of his son, William II, who eight years later granted a new constitution to the country. He died in 1849, and William III ascended the throne.

5. Holland has highly important colonies. A large part of the Malay Archipelago is under her rule, and the trade is most valuable. In 1873, she became involved in military operations on the island of Sumatra. The Dutch at the outset met with severe reverses, but the following year were more successful, though in 1907 serious disturbances still continued. In 1890 William III died. He was succeeded by his daughter, Wilhelmina, under the regency of Queen Dowager Emma. In 1896 a law was enacted greatly extending the suffrage; and the first general election under it was held in 1897. The Hollanders are a thrifty and prosperous people.

The colonial empire of Holland, one of the greatest in the world, is sixty times as large as the mother country, and contains a population six times as great. For many years these possessions have been wisely ruled. Indeed, in the administration of colonial affairs no state has been more successful, and by other countries the policy of Holland could be imitated with advantage.

Important internal improvements, such as the construction of great ship canals, have been completed, and even the draining of the Zuyder Zee has been proposed. In extent of commerce, Holland ranks fifth among the nations.

In 1899, the International Peace Conference met at The Hague. This event took place in response to an invitation

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What can you say of Belgium's civilization?—4. How did the people of Holland feel towards the government? What happened in 1840? In 1849?—5. What is said of Holland's colonies? What occurred in 1873? What event in 1890? Who succeeded William III? What is the extent of Holland's colonial empire? What has been the character of her colonial policy? How does she rank commercially? What celebrated congress met in 1899 at The Hague?

of the Emperor of Russia. The chief objects of the Congress were the reduction of military armaments and the preparation of some scheme for international arbitration. The first, principally because of the opposition of Germany, failed completely. The second was more successful, for it was determined to establish at The Hague a permanent court of arbitration. By referring for adjudication a dispute with Mexico, the United States promptly recognized the new tribunal. As other powerful states follow our example, the principle of arbitration will gradually come to be more firmly established. On July 30, 1907, the foundation stone of the Palace of Peace was laid at The Hague. For its construction, Mr. Andrew Carnegie donated the munificent sum of $1,500,000.

During the South African war the people of Holland sympathized greatly with their kinsmen and descendants. In that remarkable contest were exhibited all those characteristics that distinguished the Dutch even in the days of their glory. With a population so small, and resources so slight, the result of the Boer war could never have been in doubt. Notwithstanding their sympathies, the people of Holland could not, of course, participate in the contest.

6. In 1884, the Catholic party (Belgium) won at the elections, and the schools again became religious in character. Previously, under the rule of the radicals, religious instruction had been excluded. Belgium has taken special interest in the development of Central Africa. She bore a leading part in the establishment of the Congo Free State. In 1893, the Belgians voted universal suffrage. The constitution is liberal, and the country's condition for the past fifty years has been peaceful and prosperous.

What was the result of this conference? What was the attitude of the United States toward the establishment of such a tribunal? What important event occurred in July, 1907?—6. What is said of the Belgian schools? What part has Belgium borne in Africa? What was done in 1893? The nature of the government and condition of the people?

CHAPTER VI

SWITZERLAND.

IN the year 1273, Rodolph of Hapsburg, who was possessed of considerable territories in Switzerland, was raised to the throne of Germany. Obliged to acknowledge the supremacy of the empire, the Swiss Cantons, though free in their internal government, became restless and discontented. The Emperor Albert, son and successor of Rodolph, indignant at the spirit of freedom they occasionally manifested, determined to force them to subjection.

2. Gesler, one of his officers, had erected a pole in the market-square, on which he placed his hat, commanding the passers-by to pay it homage. William Tell refused. He was sentenced to death, but his sentence was changed into a command to shoot an apple from the head of his son; and if he failed, both he and his son were to be executed. Tell hit the apple, but an arrow having been discovered in his possession, which he confessed was intended for Gesler's heart in case of failure, he was imprisoned. Placed on board a boat to be conveyed across Lake Luzerne, a storm arose, and, that his skill might save the vessel, Tell was unbound. He guided her course to the shore, where, leaping upon a rock, he killed Gesler with an arrow, and then escaped to his friends, already arming in defence of their endangered liberties. It is due to truth, however, to say that recent researches cast great doubt upon the whole legend of William Tell.

3. At the battle of Morgarten, the brave mountaineers, with one thousand three hundred infantry, defeated the Emperor Leopold, and twenty-one thousand cavalry. This battle was fought in the year 1315, and the independence of Switzerland, thus gloriously achieved, still flourishes, after the lapse of nearly six hundred years, in undiminished vigor, firm and immovable as her own native Alps.

4. Switzerland is a federal republic. Its constitution, revised in 1874, is modelled on that of the United States. The

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CHAPTER VI.—1. To what country were the Swiss subject?—2. Relate the story of William Tell.—3. Describe the battle of Morgarten. How long have the Swiss maintained their independence?—4. What kind of government has Switzerland? How does its constitution differ from that of the United States?

executive power, however, in place of being administered through one person, is vested in a council of seven, chosen every three years. The president and vice-president are elected every year. Switzerland stands alone among European powers in having no standing army. Its limited area and mountain situation tend to protect it against the march of armies and the cupidity of its neighbors. Yet the citizen is compelled to receive a certain military training. The Swiss are a brave, ingenious, and prosperous people. Great attention is given to manufactures.

5. As early as 1851, telegraph lines were taken over by the state; a little later it undertook the management of telephones. On October 15, 1897, was passed a law providing for the government ownership of railways. In the following year this measure was approved by a referendum. The system of state control has not been in operation long enough to speak positively of its advantages. The Swiss people, however, claim that the railroad service has been improved and that transportation has been cheapened. In eighteen cantons the government has taken the place of private fire insurance companies; it also monopolizes the sale of salt. Some cantons have even assumed the work of burying the dead. In a word, the Federal, or the cantonal governments, have taken over many industries that in other countries are left to private enterprise. In Switzerland, the Socialists are numerous and powerful, and in consequence paternalism is extending. Though the measures have not yet been passed, there have been attempts by constitutional amendment to reduce the hours of work, and to employ state physicians and pharmacists, who should give their services free to laborers.

6. Representative government, which is highly esteemed in English-speaking countries, does not find so much favor with the people of Switzerland. There, as elsewhere, law-making bodies formulate or propose statutes, but on many subjects these measures, in order to go into effect, must first be approved by a direct vote of the citizens. This institution, known as the Referendum, became a part of the Swiss consti-

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Why has it no standing army? What is the character of the Swiss? —5. When did the government of Switzerland assume control of the telegraph lines? When were railroads taken over? Has state management improved the railway systems in that country? Name some other enterprises controlled by the state. What element of the population is responsible for this policy?—6. How is representative government regarded in Switzerland? What is the Referendum?

tution in 1874. The Initiative is also a political institution of that epoch.

7. If the people can suggest laws on certain subjects, and approve laws on still others, it is clear that in Switzerland the legislature is not so important as with us. The Swiss believe that representative government is doomed; at any rate, they prefer a direct participation of the citizens in public affairs. Though neither the Initiative nor the Referendum has yet been perfected, their tendencies seem to indicate that together they are no great improvement upon the system of ordinary legislative assemblies.

8. Many years ago Switzerland assumed voluntarily an attitude of neutrality in the disputes of her powerful neighbors. This position she has since by treaty bound herself to respect. For a long time, too, the Swiss have made their country an asylum for alien refugees who have come among them. This hospitality has been greatly abused by Russian, German, and other anarchists. Conspiracies traced to this peaceful land have brought about with both powers rather strained relations.

9. From time to time Switzerland manifests a keen interest in educational questions, and in the last half century she has produced many very learned men. During the period from 1889-1891, there was established the famous Catholic University at Fribourg. Since 1907, there has been a separation of Church and State; nevertheless religious instruction has been retained in the schools.

10. Every citizen is required to perform certain military service, and so efficient is the organization of the militia that at a moment's notice Switzerland could put into the field an army of five hundred thousand drilled soldiers. As these might be used to put down strikes, the Socialists are naturally opposed to every extension of the military establishment.

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7. What do the Swiss think of legislative bodies? Do they trust them as we do?—8. In her foreign relations, what is the attitude of Switzerland? Why do anarchists take refuge in that country? How does it affect her relations with outside powers?—9. What famous university was established in 1891?—10. What is the extent of Switzerland's military establishment? What class of the people are opposed to it?

CHAPTER VII

MODERN GREECE.

IN our view of Ancient Greece, we pursued its history to its final conquest and subjugation by the Romans. The subsequent history of this country, until the building of Constantinople, and the great division of the Roman Empire by the transfer of the seat of government from Rome to that city, presents but few events of importance. After the death of Theodosius the Great, the last sovereign who presided over both divisions of the empire, his son, Arcadius, reigned in the East, and, therefore, may be regarded as the first of the Greek Emperors.

2. He was a weak and indolent prince, controlled in every transaction by his wife, Eudox'ia, a haughty and imperious woman. His whole reign presents scarcely a single action worthy of the son of the illustrious Theodosius. He was succeeded by his son, Theodosius the Younger, whose reign was short, and, like that of his father, unimportant. The Emperors who succeeded Theodosius, until the reign of Justinian, have left behind them no transactions that deserve a notice in this brief review of history.

3. Justin'ian had been associated in the empire with Justin I, and succeeded to the sole command on the death of that Emperor, in the year 527. Justinian displayed his greatest wisdom in the choice of his ministers; and his reign is conspicuous, not for any memorable transaction of his own, but chiefly for the military operations of his generals. The great and illustrious Belisa'rius, one of the most distinguished of his generals, defeated the Persians in three terrible battles; destroyed the kingdom of the Vandals, in Africa, and led their sovereign captive to Constantinople; wrested Italy from the hand of the Gothic princes, and restored it for a short period to the dominions of Justinian.

4. The Goths a second time overran Italy, and again Belisarius was sent against them. But being left without the means

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CHAPTER VII.—1. In the review of Ancient Greece, how far did we pursue its history? What is said of the subsequent history? Who is regarded as the first of the Greek Emperors?—2. What was he? By whom was he succeeded?—3. In what did Justinian display his greatest wisdom? What did Belisarius do?—4. What is said of the Goths?

necessary for conducting the war, that celebrated commander was doomed to see his former prosperity decline and himself treated with neglect by the man whose empire he had repeatedly and successfully defended against its foreign and domestic enemies. He was superseded in the command by Nar'ses, who had the honor of terminating the war in Italy. He defeated Totila in a decisive engagement on the plains of Lentagio, in which the Gothic king was slain, and governed Italy under the title of duke for thirteen years.

5. While victory crowned the arms of Justinian in the West, the ravages of war threatened the destruction of his empire in the East. Chos'roes the Great, king of Persia, for several years spread devastation over the rich and fertile provinces of Mesopotamia and Syria, frequently routing the army of the Emperor with immense loss. Scarcely was peace concluded with this formidable enemy, when the Huns, a furious and warlike race, made an irruption into Thrace, and threatened even the capital itself. Once more the empire was saved by the valor of Belisarius. Though far advanced in years, and scarcely able to wield his sword, he marched against the barbarians, and compelled them to retire. Unfortunately for this great man, he lived under the reign of a prince who was unable to appreciate his merits. In return for the services rendered the empire, the ungrateful Justinian, on mere suspicion of his being privy to a late conspiracy, stripped him of all his honors, caused him to be arrested, and cast into prison, where he languished for several months.*

6. Justinian died in the eighty-fourth year of his age, and in the thirty-ninth of his reign, A. D. 565. It was not, however, the military operations of this Emperor that render his reign so distinguished. The famous body of laws prepared under his direction, by the learned Trebonian, known as the Justinian Code, has reflected a brighter lustre on his name, and has conferred greater benefits on posterity, than all the military achievements of his generals. From this collection the different States of Europe have derived the greater portion of the laws that make up their respective codes. Pre-

* See "Short Biographies of Eminent Personages."

What was the general doomed to see? By whom was he superseded? Whom did Narses defeat?—5. What is said of Chosroes the Great? Of the Huns? How was the empire saved? In return, what did he receive?—6. When did Justinian die? What has his body of laws reflected? From this code, what has been derived?

vious to the time of Justinian, to become acquainted with the ancient jurisprudence it was necessary to peruse nearly two thousand volumes, a task which would take the longest lifetime to perform. The Justinian Code was comprised in about fifty books, to which were added four others, called the Institutes, containing the fundamental principles of all legislation.

7. Justinian was succeeded in the empire by his nephew, Justin II. Though a prince of much virtue, Justin was a man of weak intellect, and wholly governed by his consort, Sophia, whose arrogant conduct brought new disasters on the empire. Against Narses, who still governed in Italy, the Empress had long harbored a deadly hatred; and now believing herself in a station from which she could fearlessly gratify her vengeance, she sent him an insolent order to quit Italy and return to Constantinople. Narses, who inherited much of the military ability of Belisarius, but lacked the patriotism and virtuous forbearance of that illustrious general, wrote to Alboinus, the king of the Lombards, and invited him to avenge the insult he had received. But scarcely had he determined on this hasty step, than he repented of an act which tended to dishonor a life otherwise distinguished by so many brilliant achievements. But his repentance came too late to prevent the evil. The Lombards had already set out for Italy, and having crossed the Alps, they subdued that part of the country called from them Lombardy, and made Pavia the capital of their kingdom.

8. The Persians, under Chosroes, again laid waste the eastern provinces of the empire. At the intelligence of these disasters, Justin was thrown into a deep melancholy, which gradually degenerated into a partial insanity. Perceiving that he was unable to direct the affairs of government alone, he had the prudence to associate with himself a colleague in the empire. The choice fell upon Tiberius, a man in every respect qualified for the important station. The honor of the empire was soon retrieved. Chosroes was driven to the extremity of Persia, where, being unable to survive his defeat, he died of grief and despair, after a reign of forty-eight years.

9. The words of Justin, upon the introducton of Tiberius

Previous to this time, what was necessary?—7. By whom was Justinian succeeded? What was he? By whom was he governed? What is related of Narses? What did he do?—8. What did the Persians do? What happened to Justin? What had he the prudence to do? On whom did the choice fall?

to the empire, are worthy of record: "Love the people as yourself, cultivate the affection and maintain the discipline of the army; protect the fortunes of the rich, and relieve the necessities of the poor." Tiberius, during his short reign, which lasted four years, after the death of Justin, was never known to depart from this excellent advice; and on his death-bed he nominated Maurice, who had proved himself an able general, as his successor to the throne.

10. The reign of this Emperor was turbulent and his end tragical. He possessed many virtues, and on some occasions displayed a considerable degree of prudence and courage, but avarice is said to have been his greatest fault. During one of his campaigns, twelve thousand of his troops fell into the hands of the enemy. Maurice refused to redeem them, although but a small sum was asked for their ransom; and this refusal so enraged the barbarians, that they put them all to the sword. While this unworthy conduct excited against him the loudest complaints, he had the imprudence to order his troops to take up their quarters in the enemy's country, and to subsist there during the winter by plunder. The soldiers, exasperated at this command, revolted, and, having proclaimed Phocas Emperor, advanced towards Constantinople.

11. At the news of this event, Maurice endeavored to make his escape with his family; but at Chalcedon he fell into the hands of his pursuers, and his five sons were barbarously put to death in the presence of their unhappy father, who, in the bitterness of his affliction, repeated these words of the royal prophet: "Thou art just, O Lord, and Thy judgment is right." When the nurse endeavored to conceal the royal infant, and offered her own child to the executioner, Maurice refused to allow the deception. The tragical scene was ended by the execution of the Emperor himself, who thus perished with his unfortunate children.

12. Phocas did not long enjoy his ill-gotten crown. While he remained shut up in his capital, Chosroes II, king of the Persians, crossed the boundary of the empire, and spread desolation over some of the most fertile districts of Mesopotamia

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9. What were the words of Justin to Tiberius? What is said of Tiberius?—10. What is said of the reign of this prince? What happened during one campaign? What did he refuse? What did he order? What did the soldiers do?—11. At this news, what did Maurice do? At Chalcedon, what is related of him? What did he repeat? What is said of the nurse?—12. What is said of Phocas?

and Syria. The senate of Constantinople, seeing nothing done for the defence of the empire, invited Herac'lius, the governor of Africa, to their assistance, offering him the imperial throne as the reward of his services. Heraclius having declined the honor on account of his advanced age, the offer was eagerly embraced by his son, of the same name, who, immediately embarking with a select body of troops, arrived before the walls of Constantinople almost before the usurper had any intimation of his approach. Phocas, deserted by his friends, was instantly seized and beheaded; while at the same time Heraclius was proclaimed Emperor, A. D. 610.

13. The reign of this Emperor was almost one unbroken series of wars with his formidable neighbors, the Persians, whom he defeated in six successive campaigns, and at length obliged to sue for peace. During his reign, which lasted for upwards of thirty years, he continued to defend and preserve the dignity of the empire. The several Emperors who succeeded Heraclius, did little of importance to distinguish their reigns. That of Constantine Pagonatus is conspicuous for the memorable siege which Constantinople sustained against the Saracens, who, for seven successive years, presented themselves before the walls of the city, but were as often vigorously repulsed, and at last obliged to abandon the enterprise. One of the most destructive agents used by the Greeks during this age was Greek Fire, which had the peculiar property of burning in water, and could be extinguished only by sand, wine, or vinegar. It was invented by a Syrian named Callinicus, and for several centuries employed with great effect by the Greeks in their different wars, before the secret of its composition was discovered by the neighboring nations.

14. Justinian II, who succeeded Constantine, was distinguished for his cruelty. He was at length banished from the empire, but having regained the throne by the assistance of the Bulgarians, he exercised the most fearful vengeance on his enemies. His reign, however, was cut short by assassination. In the short space of six years, the sceptre passed through the hands of three successive Emperors. In 717,

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What did the senate do? By whom was the offer embraced? What was the end of Phocas?—13. What was the reign of this emperor? For what is the reign of Constantine Pagonatus conspicuous? What was one of the most destructive agents? What is said of it?—14. What is said of Justinian II? What took place?

Leo, surnamed the Isau'rian, succeeded in wresting it from the hand of the weak Theodosius III.

15. The reign of this monarch is more conspicuous for the violent hostility which he manifested towards the use of sacred images in the churches than for any important service he rendered to the empire. Leo, whose stunted mind was unable to comprehend that the veneration of images is only an inferior honor paid to the persons whom they represent, published a fanatical edict against the use of them in churches. In consequence of this order, the pictures and images of Christ and of the saints were removed, not, however, without causing loud complaints and much disturbance. On one occasion, the enraged Leo brutally ordered the execution of twelve librarians, whom he was unable to gain over to his party, and the imperial fanatic caused the destruction of even the public library of Constantinople. The persecution was carried on under his successors, Constantine, and Leo IV, until the affair was finally settled by the Seventh General Council, held at Nice, which solemnly decided that the relative honor paid to images was strictly in accordance with Scripture, and the early practise of the Church, and wholly free from the charge of idolatry and superstition.

16. During the minority of Constantine V, the Empress Irene, his mother, was appointed regent. She was a woman distinguished alike for her great ability and her cruelty. By her order, her son was deposed, and murdered in a barbarous manner. After this she governed alone for five years; but an insurrection having been excited against her, she was in her turn deposed, and Niceph'orus, the grand treasurer, proclaimed Emperor. The unfortunate Irene was banished to the Isle of Lesbos, where, it is said, she was obliged to gain a scanty subsistence by the labor of her hands, a melancholy example of unworthy ambition.

17. Nicephorus did not long enjoy the honor to which he was raised, for, having undertaken an expedition against the Bulgarians, he was defeated and slain in battle. During the short reigns of Stauracius and Michael, the Bulgarians in their turn invaded the empire, and carried their devastations

15. For what is his reign memorable? What is said of Leo? What was the consequence of this order? On one occasion, what did the enraged emperor order? When was the affair settled? What did it decide?—16. During the minority of Constantine, who was appointed regent? What was done by her order? What was excited against her? What was her fate?—17. What is said of Nicephorus?

so far as to threaten even the capital itself. Such was the situation of things, when Leo, the Armenian, ascended the throne. Being a man of great military ability, he immediately marched against the Bulgarians, over whom he gained several decisive victories, and, after a prosperous reign of seven years, was assassinated by the partisans of Michael, the commander of the guards, who was raised from the prison (where he had been confined on a charge of rebellion) to the throne. During the reign of this weak and profligate prince, the empire suffered the loss of the islands of Crete and Sicily, which were conquered by the Mussulmans; and during the reign of Theophilus, his successor, the eastern Saracens took and destroyed the flourishing city of Amorium, in Asia Minor, and led thirty thousand of its inhabitants captives into Persia.

18. Theophilus was succeeded by his son, Michael III, a man of the most dissolute character and abandoned habits. It was during the reign of this Emperor, that the first separation of the Greeks from the Catholic Church took place.* After a reign of twenty-five years, he was assassinated while in a state of intoxication, and Basil the Macedonian, his colleague, a man of humble birth, was acknowledged as sole Emperor, A. D. 867. Through the vigilance and activity of Basil, the disorders of the preceding reign were soon removed, and peace restored to every department of the state. He waged successful war against the Saracens, and after a prosperous reign of nineteen years, died from an accident which he received in the chase, A. D. 886.

19. Under the succeeding Emperors, until the reign of Nicephorus Phocas, who ascended the throne in 963, the Greek empire had greatly fallen from its former splendor. Nicephorus, by his great military talents, for a short period, supported its declining glory. Having recovered the island of Crete, he next invaded Asia, and wrested from the Saracens several towns and provinces, which he united to the empire. By his avarice and exactions, he at length alienated the affection of his subjects. A conspiracy having been formed against him, he was assassinated; and John Zemisces, one of the chief conspirators, was raised to the throne.

* See the chapters on the "History of The Church."

Against whom did Leo March? What was his end? What is said of the empire during the reign of this prince?—18. By whom was Theophilus succeeded? What took place during his reign? What was his end? Who succeeded? When did he die?—19. What is said of Nicephorus? What was his fate? Who succeeded?

20. This Emperor, although he wore the crown of his murdered sovereign, directed the affairs of government with an able hand. He effectually repelled the irruption of the Russians, whom he defeated in several bloody engagements, and finally compelled them to retire to their own dominions. He was equally successful in his war against the Saracens, who, availing themselves of his absence, had conquered several places in Asia. His prosperous career, however, was cut short by the treachery of his chief minister, who caused him to be poisoned, in the sixth year of his reign.

21. After his death, Basil II and Constantine VIII reigned jointly, though the exercise of the supreme authority was left entirely to the former. He was possessed of a military and enterprising spirit. He reduced Bulgaria, and extended considerably the limits of the empire in the East. He was preparing for an expedition against the Saracens of Sicily, when he died, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the fifty-first of his reign, A. D. 1025. During the fifty succeeding years, fifteen Emperors filled the throne in succession, but their reigns are not distinguished for any remarkable achievements. At the time of the Crusades, Constantinople was taken by the French and Venetians, and held by them for a period of nearly sixty years, during which time the Greek Emperors reigned at Nice. In 1261, in the reign of Michael Palæolo'gus, Constantinople was again recovered from the conquerors.

22. In the year 1453, during the reign of Constantine Palæologus, Constantinople was besieged and taken by the Turks, under Mohammed II.* Since that eventful period, until recent years, Greece was subject to Mohammedan dominion. All the annoyances that ignorance, brutality, tyranny, and greed could suggest, were practised by the Turks on the much-enduring Greeks; but at length human nature could endure no longer, and, in 1821, the Greeks sounded the tocsin of rebellion. After the war had continued for a number of years, several of the European powers interposed in their

* See "Turkey."

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20. What is said of this emperor? What was his end?—21. After his death, who reigned jointly? Who exercised the supreme authority? What did he reduce? When did he die? At the time of the Crusades, what happened? In 1261, what took place?—22. In 1453, what took place? Since that time until recent years, what has been the history of Greece? What occurred in 1820? Who interposed in behalf of the Greeks?

behalf. On the 20th of October, 1827, the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia completely destroyed the Turkish naval force in the battle of Navarino—an event which secured the independence of Greece. It became a kingdom, and, in 1832, Otho, a son of the king of Bavaria, was called to the throne. Though his rule was not fruitless, he had many difficulties to encounter, and, after a reign of thirty years, he was banished. George I, a son of Christian IX, of Denmark, was elected king in 1863.

23. Modern Greece is a feeble state, and its history, until 1897, uneventful. The great powers (England, France, and Russia) which, by the treaty of London (1828), founded the kingdom, still guarantee its independence. In 1881 an extensive portion of Thessaly and Epirus was ceded to it by the Turkish government, under pressure of the guaranteeing powers. In 1886, the Greeks threatened an invasion of Turkey. The intervention of the great powers prevented a conflict. At Athens, in 1889, was celebrated with great pomp the marriage of the Crown Prince to the Princess Sophia of Prussia. In 1896, the Olympian games were revived, representatives of all civilized peoples participating. Near the close of the same year the Christians of Crete revolted against Turkey. Greece interfered in their behalf at the beginning of 1897, declined to withdraw, and in April war broke out between Greece and Turkey. It was fiercely waged on the frontier for some time, when the Greek forces were driven back into Thessaly, and again defeated there. The Turks were preparing to advance on Athens when the Powers interfered, ordered an end to be put to hostilities, and compelled the concluding of a treaty by which Greece is to pay a large indemnity to Turkey. Greece is now financially ruined. The established religion is that of the Greek Church, whose head is the Czar of Russia. The government is constitutional.

What naval battle was fought in 1827? What did it secure? Who was called to the throne of Greece in 1832? What is said of his reign? Who was elected king in 1863?—23. How is the independence of Greece guaranteed? What territorial addition was made in 1881? What event in 1886? In 1889? What is said of religion? Of the nature of the government?

CHAPTER VIII

TURKEY.

THE Turks derive their origin from the Huns, who inhabited Grand Tartary, in Asia. At the commencement of the eighth century, we find them issuing from their obscure abode and settling in Pannonia and Asia Minor. At first their dominions were divided into various small states, and governed by persons called Emirs. Towards the close of the twelfth century, Othman, or Ottoman, who assumed the title of Sultan, succeeded in uniting them into one monarchy, and established the seat of his government at Prusa, now Broussa, in Bithynia.

2. Previous to this period, the Turks, or Ottomans (so called from the name of the founder of their monarchy), had embraced the religion of Mohammed, which they retain to the present time. During the reign of this monarch, they extended their dominions to the borders of the Greek empire; and during the reign of his successor they crossed the Hellespont on rafts, took Gallipoli, entered Thrace, and thus laid the foundation of their empire in Europe. Baj'azet I had formed the project of invading the Greek empire and reducing its capital, Constantinople, but was obliged to defer the execution of his design in order to defend himself against the encroachments of the celebrated Tam'erlane, king of the Usbec Tartars, who had invaded his dominions. The two mighty chieftains met at Angora, where was fought one of the most terrible battles recorded in history. The united combatants amounted to nearly one million of men, of whom three hundred thousand were left dead upon the field. Bajazet fell into the hands of the conqueror, and shortly afterwards, in despair, destroyed himself.

3. The reign of Amurath II was distinguished by his unsuccessful attempt to render himself master of the Greek capital, and by his war with Hungary. He was succeeded by his son, Mahomet II, surnamed the Great, who immediately

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CHAPTER VIII.—1. From whom do the Turks derive their origin? In the eighth century, what do we find? Towards the close of the twelfth century, what took place?—2. Previous to this period, what had the Turks embraced? What did they do during the reign of this monarch and his successor? What project had Bajazet I formed? Where did the two chieftains meet? What was the number of the combatants and the number slain?—3. For what was the reign of Amurath II distinguished? By whom was he succeeded?

undertook the favorite object of his predecessor, namely, the reduction of the capital of the Eastern Empire. After some short delay in making the necessary preparations, he assailed the city of Constantinople, both by sea and land. The indolent inhabitants, deeming themselves secure beneath the shelter of those walls, which for ages bade defiance to every assault, made but feeble preparations for their defence. Constantine, the last of the Greek Emperors, alone seemed conscious of the impending danger, and began to prepare, with prudence and vigor, for the contest that was to decide the fate of his empire.

4. He continued night and day, with his troops, to animate them by his presence, and to encourage them by his heroic example. On the other hand, Mahomet, by the promise of increased pay, and the spoils of the city in case of victory, stimulated his soldiers to redoubled energy. Both ancient and modern artillery were brought to bear during this memorable siege. The impregnable walls of Constantinople at length yielded to the combined force of the battering-ram and the cannon. On the 29th of May, the city was taken by assault and delivered up to the plunder of the barbarous victors. Constantine fell, gloriously defending his country and his throne, and was afterwards found buried against the heaps of the dead and wounded.

5. The great Church of St. Sophia was immediately converted into a mosque, and the Turkish crescent elevated upon the dome that the cross had for ages surmounted. A crier proclaimed a public invitation to prayer in the name of God and his prophet, and Mahomet II knelt at the altar, where only a few days before the brave, but ill-fated Catholic Constantine, the last of the Cæsars, had received the Sacrament of the Holy Eucharist.

6. On the fall of Constantinople, Mahomet led his victorious soldiers over all Greece and Epirus. But in 1481, death put an end to his career of conquest. His successor, Bajazet II, after carrying on various wars against the Saracens, Venetians, Hungarians, and others, was compelled to abdicate his crown in favor of his ungrateful son, by whose order

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What did he do? What is said of the inhabitants? Of Constantine?—4. What did he do? How did Mahomet stimulate his soldiers? On the 29th of May, what took place? What was the fate of Constantine?—5. Into what was the church of St. Sophia converted? What did the public crier do?—6. On the fall of Constantinople, what did Mahomet do?

he was basely murdered. During the reign of Selim I, Syria and Egypt were conquered. His successor, Solyman I, surnamed the Magnificent, was the most illustrious of all the Turkish sovereigns. He took the island of Rhodes from the Knights of St. John, laid siege to Vienna, reduced Bagdad, established his dominion over the whole of Assyria and Mesopotamia, and passed many excellent laws.

7. The reigns of his successors, Selim II, and Amurath III, were not marked by any event of importance. Mahomet III commenced his reign by a display of unparalleled barbarity. He caused nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's wives to be drowned. The empire, however, continued to flourish, except in the naval department. Othman II invaded Poland, where he suffered a most signal defeat, with the loss of eighty thousand men, and ended his life by assassination. Amurath IV took Bagdad, and caused thirty thousand Persians to be slaughtered; and during the reign of Mahomet IV, Candia fell under the Ottoman power, after sustaining fifty-six assaults, in which the Turks lost one hundred and eighteen thousand men. Mahomet afterwards besieged Vienna with an army of two hundred thousand, from which he was compelled to retire in disgrace, through the skill and heroism of John Sobieski, king of Poland.

8. The small but enterprising and martial republic of Venice for one hundred and fifty years checked the Ottoman power. Since the reign of Achmet III, who was deposed in 1730, the Turkish power has been on the decline. The reign of Mustapha III was distinguished by a ruinous war with Russia, which continued, with but little intermission, until the reign of Selim III, in 1792, when it was terminated by making important concessions to the Russian empire. During the reign of Selim, Bonaparte invaded Egypt, and took possession of Cairo and all the Delta. The year 1821 was distinguished for the commencement of the Greek revolution, which finally resulted in the emancipation of Greece from the power of Turkey.

What was done by his successor? What is said of Solyman I? What did he take?—7. How did Mahomet III commence his reign? What did Othman invade? How did he die? What did Amurath IV take? During the reign of Mahomet IV, what was done?—8. What is said of the republic of Venice? For what was the reign of Mustapha III distinguished? During the reign of Selim, who invaded Egypt? In 1821, what took place?

SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE
According to the Treaty of Berlin.
1878.
Slaves
Austrian
Greek
Roumanian
Bulgarian
Ottomans
English
Prague
Olmutz
Crescau
Pressburg
Komorn
Buda
Pesth
Innsbruck
Trieste
Agram
Ravenna
Polat
Zvornik
Belgrade
Orsova
Krajova
Widin
Bucharest
Giurgevo
Rustchuk
Silistria
Sistova
Plevna
Nissa
Varna
Sofia
Burgas
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Enos
Gallipoli
Constantinople
Ismid
Brousa
Angora
Smyrna
Konia
Kaisariyeh
Diarbekir
Urfa
Mosul
Aleppo
Anticch
Adana
Tarsos
Adalia
Cyprus
Nicosia
Famagusta
Tripoli
Beyrout
Damascus
Bagdad
Kaffa
Sebastopol
Balaklava
Kertch
Akerman
Odessa
Ekaterinoslav
Kief
Kamienitz
Lemberg
Jassy
Choczim
Sinope
Samsoun
Amasia
Tokat
Trebizond
Erzeroum
Batoum
Ardahan
Kars
Erivan
Tiflis
Rome
Naples
Gaeta
Benevento
Tarento
Bari
Brindisi
Palermo
Messina
Catania
Malta
Corfu
Athens
Navarino
Sparta
Argos
Corinth
Patras
Missolonghi
Arta
Larissa
Volo
Lamia
Thessalonika
Monastir
Ochrida
Prizrena
Uskub
Novi Bazar
Mitrovitza
Belgrade
Semlin
Hermanstadt
Klausenburg
Debreczin
Grosswardein
Arad
Temesvar
Szegedin
Essek
Agram
Carlstadt
Fiume
Trieste
Laibach
Villach
Salzburg
Linz
Vienna
Pressburg
Olmutz
Prague
Dresden
Leipzig
Berlin
Stettin
Danzig
Memel
Konigsberg
Warsaw
Lemberg
Kief
Ekaterinoslav
Kertch
Kaffa
Sebastopol
Balaklava
Akerman
Odessa
Kherson
Kuban
Caucasus
Tiflis
Baku
Caspian Sea
Volga
Don
Dnieper
Dniester
Pruth
Danube
Save
Drave
Theiss
Maros
Marmora
Black Sea
Aegean Sea
Ionian Sea
Adriatic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Persia
Arabia
Russia
Austria
Hungary
Roumania
Turkey
Italy
Sicily
Crete
Rhodes
Cyprus
Malta
Corfu
Kephallenia
Zakynthos
Kythera
Euboea
Negropont
Candia
Canea
Retimo
Scutari
Durazzo
Avlona
Kastoria
Prevesa
Parga
Souli
Janina
Salonica
Gallipoli
Dulcigno
Antivari
Cattaro
Ragusa
Spalato
Zara
Fiume
Trieste
Venice
Ravenna
Bologna
Florence
Rome
Naples
Gaeta
Benevento
Tarento
Bari
Brindisi
Palermo
Messina
Catania

9. We have already learned the details of the Crimean war, 1853-5, in which, with the aid of France, England, and Sardinia, the Turks were once victorious over Russia—an implacable foe, whose hatred will never be satisfied with anything short of their utter destruction. The conflict with Russia, which began in 1877, and terminated in the year following, left Turkey in a most crippled condition. The Turk is now the "sick man" of Europe, and his political death and burial are simply matters of time. He is bound to go. Nor is this to be regretted. The whole history of the Turks in Europe is the history of appalling tyranny. Even today, any Turkish ruffian may with impunity assault or murder a Christian. A good Mohammedan regards it as his right and duty to kill a Christian whenever he has the opportunity. The evidence of a Christian against a Turk is not received in a court of law. A Turk can legally steal Christian children, and forcibly convert them to Mohammedanism. In short, no Christian has any right which a Turk is bound to respect!

This has been shown especially since 1894. In that and the following year a series of most appalling massacres of Christians took place in Armenia, with the disgraceful connivance of the European powers. Similar outrages were in 1896 perpetrated on the island of Crete, and led to the war with, and the humiliation of Greece, in 1897.*

10. Selim III, as mentioned in section 8, was Sultan in 1792. Subsequently the line of succession runs thus: In 1807, Mustapha IV held the sceptre. Mahmoud II came next, in 1808. His reign was long, Abdul Medjid succeeding in 1839. Another Abdul, Abdul Aziz, became Sultan in 1861. Amurath V, crowned in 1876, died by violence the same year, when Abdul Hamid II, in the year 1893, came to the throne.

11. The Turks, after a series of remarkable achievements, ceased at the close of the seventeenth century to be an aggressive power. Since that date, both in territory and in physical force, there has been a steady decline. European Turkey has had wrenched from it province after province, and for years

* See the chapter on "Greece."

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9. What is remarked of the Crimean war? Of the conflict of 1877? What is the Turk now? What is the entire history of the Turks in Europe? State how Turks may injure Christians with impunity.—10. Give the names and order of succession of the Sultans.—11. When did the Turks cease to be aggressive?

has existed solely through the sufferance and mutual jealousies of the other powers.

Up to 1908, the corrupt, decrepit, and disordered condition of Turkey continued without interruption. On July 24, of that year, the Sultan unexpectedly announced that the constitution of 1876 was restored. In 1907, there were instances of mutiny in the army; there was a boundary dispute with Persia, and a number of massacres in Macedonia. Assassination and pillage were the normal conditions. Meanwhile, the Young Turk party was engaged in winning the affections of the army; and now, May, 1909, they have deposed the Sultan, Abdul Hamid II. It is impossible to foretell what progressive measures will be adopted by the revolutionists.

What preserves the existence of Turkey? Why is Constantinople so important? What power has coveted it? The result? What has been the condition of Turkey up to 1908? What event occurred on July 24th of that year? Describe conditions in 1907. What was the Young Turk party engaged in? What happened in May, 1909?

BOOK XVI

AMERICA

CHAPTER I

THE DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD.

THE Northmen, going by way of Iceland and Greenland, discovered the eastern coast of North America about the beginning of the eleventh century; but if they established colonies there, these did not prosper very long. Tradition regarding them, however, may have given a hint to Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, and a skilled mariner, who, in the earlier part of his career, made several voyages to Scandinavian ports. But this does not detract from the glory of his great exploit of giving a new world to civilization. At the age of fourteen, he engaged in a seafaring life. He was well versed in geometry, astronomy, geography, and nautical science; calm, persevering, and patient under the most trying circumstances; dignified in his deportment; at all times perfectly master of himself, and capable of eliciting the esteem and commanding the obedience of all under his direction.

2. Columbus founded his theory on reasons from nature, the authority of writers, and the testimony of navigators. He believed the world to be a sphere. Then arriving at the very just conclusion that Europe, Asia, and Africa formed but a small portion of our earth, and that to complete the balance, another continent must necessarily exist, he supposed it to be united to Asia, and that it might be reached by sailing west from Europe. Pieces of wood artifically carved, and reeds driven by a westerly wind, had been taken up in

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CHAPTER I.—1. Who were the first Europeans in America? Did their work endure? To whom does the honor, etc., belong? What is said of this illustrious man? Give his character.—2. On what did Columbus found his theory? What did he believe? What did he suppose? What had been taken up?

the ocean, west of the Madeira Islands; trees, and on one occasion the bodies of two men of strange features, were driven upon the Azores.

3. Convinced of the truth of his theory, the energetic Columbus was impatient to test it by experiment. Anxious that his native country should participate in the honor that might arise from so noble an enterprise, he first solicited the patronage of the Senate of Genoa; but, to his great mortification, they treated his theory as a visionary project. He next applied for assistance to the Portuguese, but was again refused. He then despatched his brother, Bartholomew, to the court of England, to solicit the patronage of Henry VII; but Bartholomew Columbus, having been captured by pirates, did not reach England for several years.

4. In the meantime, Columbus laid his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella, the sovereigns of Spain, who gave him little encouragement. At length, after years of patient solicitation, and after surmounting difficulties under which any other than Columbus would have sunk in despair, he obtained a gleam of hope from the royal favor of Isabella. This celebrated queen, fired with the glory that must follow from the accomplishment of so grand an enterprise, and anxious to spread the Christian religion, resolved to lend her assistance to Columbus. But her finances were in a low state, as the long war with the Moors—whose last stronghold had just been taken—had drained the royal coffers of Castile. She was ready, however, to pledge her jewels to raise the funds required. "I undertake it," exclaimed this noble woman, "for my own crown of Castile, and I will pledge my jewels to raise the necessary funds!" This was the brightest moment in the life of Isabella, the Catholic. It stamped her renown forever as the patroness of the discovery of the New World.*

5. On the 17th of April, more than seven years from the time of his first application, an armament was fitted out, consisting of three small vessels, called the Santa Maria,†

* The necessary funds were finally advanced from the treasury of the Santa Hermandad, and the queen's jewels were saved.

† The Holy Mary.

What on one occasion?—3. Why did he solicit the patronage of Genoa? Where did he next apply? Where did he send his brother? —4. In the meantime, what did Columbus do? At length what did he obtain? What is said of the queen? By whom was she relieved? —5. On the 17th of April, what was done?

the Pinta, and Niña, carrying one hundred and twenty men, with provisions for twelve months. Columbus, previous to entering on the voyage, was appointed admiral of all the seas he should explore, and governor of all the islands he should subdue. He was required, however, to pay one-eighth of the cost.

6. On the 3d of August, in the year 1492, Columbus set sail from the port of Palos, in Spain; and, after touching at the Canary Islands, where he refitted his vessels, he proceeded on his voyage, taking a westerly direction into seas unknown and unexplored. By the 14th of September, the fleet stood two hundred leagues west of the Canaries. Here it was observed that the magnetic needle in the compass did not point directly to the north star, but varied towards the west. The phenomenon, which had never been observed before, excited alarm and terror in the breasts of the Spanish sailors. They were then in a vast and trackless ocean, nature itself seemed to change, and their only guide was about to fail.

7. Columbus, with his usual presence of mind, gave an explanation for this strange phenomenon, which served to dispel the fears and silence the murmurs of his companions, although it was not satisfactory to himself. Having proceeded on his voyage for thirty days more without any prospect of land, the spirit of mutiny began again to manifest itself among the sailors, who now agreed among themselves to compel Columbus, by force, to return, while the vessels were in a condition to keep at sea. Never was there a more trying moment for a commander. Yet the great Columbus, equal to every emergency, calmed the fury of those rebellious spirits; and, far from yielding to their demands, he boldly declared in a tone of authority, which only a hero of iron resolution can assume, that their threats and murmurings were in vain, that nothing should turn him from his course, and that with the assistance of Heaven he would reach the shores he sought. He was "alone against all." But, wonderful to relate, this surging mass of enraged Spaniards became suddenly hushed before this lone man—a foreigner whom they detested. Philosophy cannot explain such a phenomenon. It stands alone in history. The finger of God was there. This singular event

What were the names of the vessels?—6. When did Columbus set sail? By the 14th of September, where was the fleet? Here, what was observed? What is said of this phenomenon?—7. What did Columbus do? What again manifested itself? How did Columbus act in this emergency? What is said of the enraged Spaniards? Can philosophy explain such a phenomenon?

happened only two days before the map of the world was changed by the discovery of America.

8. For some time previous to this, the sounding-line had reached the bottom, the flocks of birds increased, the air was more mild and warm. From all these signs Columbus concluded that land was at no great distance; and on the evening of the 11th of October, he ordered the sails to be furled and a watch to be set. While standing on the forecastle, he beheld a light carried from place to place, and shortly after midnight the joyful sound of land was heard from the crew of the Pinta. From this moment until the return of day realized their expectations, no eye was closed; all on board were in the deepest suspense and sleepless expectation. But as the morning dawned, their doubts were set at rest; a beautiful island presented itself to their view.

9. The crew of the Pinta immediately broke forth in a hymn of thanksgiving to God, in which they were joined by those of the other vessels, in tears of joy and congratulation. This office of gratitude to Heaven was next followed by an act of retribution to their noble commander; they threw themselves at his feet with the humblest acknowledgments of their rashness and disobedience, and besought his forgiveness. As the sun arose, the boats were manned and rowed towards the shore, with the Spanish colors floating to the breeze, while at the same time martial music rent the air. Columbus, richly attired, and with a drawn sword in his hand, was the first European who set his foot upon this part of the New World. His men immediately followed, and, falling upon their knees, with tears of joy they kissed the ground which they had long desired to behold. They next erected a crucifix, and, prostrating themselves before it, they returned solemn thanks to God, whose benign hand had guided them safe through a thousand dangers, and conducted their voyage to so happy an issue. They then took solemn possession of the country in the name of the Spanish sovereigns.

10. On landing, Columbus and his crews found the coast covered with a race of people different from any that they had ever seen before. They were of a dark copper color,

8. For some days previous what had been observed? From these what did Columbus conclude and order? What was heard at midnight? From this moment what is said?—9. What did the crew of the Pinta do? By what was this office, etc., followed? As the sun arose, what was done? Who was the first to land on the New World? What did his men do? What did they erect? What followed?—10. On landing, what did the Spaniards find?

without clothing or beards, and their hair flowing loosely upon their shoulders. The natives were equally surprised at the appearance of the Spaniards, whom they considered as the children of the sun, their idol; they regarded the ships as a species of animals, with eyes of lightning and voices of thunder.

11. The first land discovered by Columbus was one of the Bahama islands, called by him San Sal'vador, or Holy Savior. He afterwards visited Cuba and Hayti, or San Domin'go, to which he gave the name of Hispanio'la, and on which he left some of his men for the purpose of forming a colony. As Columbus had reached these islands by a western passage, and believing them not far distant from the unexplored region of India, they were denominated the West Indies; and the aborigines of the country were called Indians, a name which they retain to the present day. After some time spent in exploring the country, and in friendly traffic with the natives, and having collected a quantity of gold, Columbus set sail on his return to Spain.

12. During the voyage he was overtaken by a violent storm, which continued for fifteen days, and exposed the already shattered vessels to the most imminent danger. While the storm continued, Columbus, with great presence of mind, enclosed in a cake of wax a short account of the voyage and discovery, and placing it in a cask he committed it to the sea, with the hope that, if he should perish, it might fall into the hands of some navigator, or be cast ashore, and thus the knowledge of his discovery might be preserved to the world. But the storm fortunately abated, and Columbus arrived safely in the port of Palos, from which he had sailed about seven months before. He was received with the loudest acclamations by the people, who gazed with astonishment on the Indians, and the various curiosities which he brought with him from the New World. At Barcelona he met with a gracious public reception from Ferdinand and Isabella.

13. Columbus, on his third voyage to the new world, discovered the continent, and landed in several places on the northern coast of South America. But his success and the

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What is said of the natives?—11. What was the first land discovered? What did he afterwards discover? What were these islands denominated? What were the aborigines called?—12. During the voyage, what happened? While the storm continued, what did Columbus? Where did he arrive? How was he received?—13. In his third voyage, what did Columbus discover?

great marks of favor shown him by his sovereign did not fail to excite envy and jealousy against him at the court of Spain. In consequence of various false and malicious charges, he was deprived of the government of Hispaniola, and sent home in chains. The captain of the vessel in which he returned, through respect to his illustrious captive, offered to release him from his fetters. But Columbus replied, "No; I wear these chains in consequence of an order from their majesties, the rulers of Spain. They will find me as obedient in this as in every other injunction. By their command I have been confined, and their command alone shall set me at liberty."

14. On his return to Spain, a prisoner and in chains, the voice of indignation was heard from men of every rank. Even Ferdinand himself, for a season, seemed to feel the blush of shame. He ordered the venerable Columbus to be set at liberty, but ungratefully retained him in Spain until he appointed another person governor of Hispaniola. Such was the reward that the great discoverer of the western continent received, for having devised and accomplished one of the noblest enterprises that ever entered into the mind of man. Columbus never forgot this unjust and shameful treatment; and, during the remainder of his life, he carried about him the fetters in which he had been bound, as a memorial of the ingratitude he had experienced, and gave orders that they should be buried with him.

15. But his spirit of enterprise was not subdued. Bent on finding a passage to India by the west, which had been the leading object of his discovery, he undertook a fourth voyage to the new world; during which he examined the coast of Darien, but suffered shipwreck on the isle of Jamaica. After having endured a variety of sufferings and calamities, occasioned by the mutiny of his men, scarcity of provisions, and sickness, he again reached Spain. Shortly after his return, he died, at Valadolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the seventieth year of his age. His funeral, at the royal expense, was grand and imposing; and on his tomb was placed the following inscription: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus has given a New World."

In consequence of false charges, what was done? What reply did Columbus make to the captain?—14. What is said of him on his return to Spain? What did Ferdinand do? What did Columbus do during the remainder of his life?—15. What did he undertake? What did he suffer? When and where did he die? What inscription is placed on his tomb?

16. Though the world is indebted to Columbus for the discovery of the western continent, still the honor of associating his name with the hemisphere he discovered has accidentally been denied him. Amer'icus Vespu'cius, a native of Florence, who accompanied Ojeda on a voyage to the New World, in 1499, discovered a part of South America the year after the continent had been visited by Columbus. Americus, on his return to Spain, wrote an account of his voyage, which was subsequently published; and, singular to relate, the continent from him gradually received the name of America. Thus the name of Americus supplanted that of Columbus. But mankind must regret this apparent injustice which, having received the sanction of time, it is now too late to redress.

17. The immortal achievement of Columbus, who first crossed the expanse of the Atlantic, and visited regions hitherto unknown, excited throughout Europe a lively spirit of enterprise and adventure. In 1519, Magel'lan, a Portuguese navigator in the service of Spain, sailed to the western continent, passed the straits in the southern part of South America, which now bear his name, and was the first who entered that vast ocean called by him the Pacific, from the calmness of its waters. Magellan lost his life in one of the Philippine islands, yet his officers proceeded on their voyage, and for the first time accomplished the circumnavigation of the earth.

18. John Cabot, a Venetian by birth, under a commission from Henry VII, of England, accompanied by his son, Sebastian, sailed on a voyage of discovery in 1497, and revealed the continent of North America, a year before the mainland of South America had been reached by Columbus. On the 20th of November, 1497, Vasco da Gama, employed by the king of Portugal, following Diaz, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and in the following May arrived at Calicut, on the coast of Malabar. By this he effected what had been the leading object of Columbus in all his enterprises, and what, in the preceding age, had been the great object of investigation, namely, to find a more expeditious and conveni-

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16. From whom did the country receive the name of America? On his return to Spain, what did he publish?—17. What did the achievement of Columbus excite? In 1519, what was done? Where did Magellan lose his life?—18. What did John Cabot do? Who doubled the Cape of Good Hope in 1497? What was effected by this?

ent mode of passage to the East Indies than through Egypt, which was then ruled by the Mahometans.

19. Cabot having proceeded on his voyage to the north in quest of a passage to India, without being able to effect his object, returned and sailed along the coast as far as Nova Scotia, erected crosses at various points as he passed, and took possession of the country in the name of the crown of England. This was the foundation of the English claim to North America.

CHAPTER II

THE CONQUESTS OF MEXICO AND PERU—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE INDIANS—THE RISE OF THE REPUBLICS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

SEVERAL years had now elapsed since the discovery of America by Columbus, and no permanent settlement was yet made upon the continent. At an early period after the arrival of the Spaniards, they had been apprised of the existence of the rich and powerful empire of Mexico. The Governor of Cuba, having conceived the design of subjugating it to the power of Spain, fitted out a small fleet for that purpose, and placed it under the command of Hernando Cortés. On the 10th of January, 1519, Cortés sailed from Cuba with eleven small vessels, having on board six hundred and seventeen men, sixteen horses, six pieces of artillery, and a few muskets. Having reached the continent, he caused himself to be proclaimed independent of the Governor of Cuba (who had already revoked the commission entrusted to Cortés), and accountable to none but the king of Spain.

2. He then laid the foundation of the colony of Vera Cruz, and the better to inspire his troops in their arduous undertaking, by cutting off all hope of returning, he caused the vessels to be burnt on the coast. Cortés now proceeded rapidly on his march to the capital of the Mexican empire, which he finally reached, after encountering innumerable

19. What laid the foundation of the English claim to North America?

CHAPTER II.—1. Of what had the Spaniards been apprised at an early period? What designs did the governor of Cuba form? When did Cortés sail, and with what number of vessels? What did he cause himself?—2. What did he then do? Where did he proceed?

difficulties. He entered the city under the assumed quality of ambassador of the Spanish monarch, and was cordially received by the Emperor Montezuma, who assigned him one of the royal palaces as a place of residence during his stay.

3. The killing of a few Spaniards outside the city of Mexico was soon made the pretext of a bold and brilliant enterprise. Cortés, on receiving intelligence of it, took with him a small band of resolute men, went to the palace of the Emperor, seized the person of Montezuma, and compelled him to return with him to his residence. Shortly after this the Mexicans flew to arms, and, after many obstinate contests, the Spaniards were compelled to leave the capital. On one occasion, as Montezuma appeared on the rampart, in order to quell a sedition among the citizens, the unhappy monarch was killed by a stone thrown by one of his own subjects. He was immediately succeeded by his brother.

4. But no reverse of fortune could intimidate the courage or abate the ardor of the bold and enterprising Cortés. Having obtained the assistance of a nation of Indians, who were tributary to the sovereign of Mexico, and being reinforced by a body of Spaniards, he again presented himself before the city, which was accordingly taken, after a siege of three months. The new Emperor endeavored to escape with his family and court, but was intercepted and taken prisoner before he could effect his design.

5. Cortés received him with much courtesy. The Mexican ruler probably knew the person of the conqueror, for he broke silence by saying, "I have done all that I could to defend myself and my people. I am now reduced to this state. You will deal with me as you please." "Fear not," replied the great and intrepid general, "You will be treated with all honor. You have defended your capital like a brave warrior. A Spaniard knows how to respect valor even in an enemy." Thus fell the great city of Mexico. Sixty thousand Mexicans laid down their arms on the 13th of August, 1521. The whole empire became a Spanish province. The Catholic religion was introduced. On the site of the famous temple of the god of war, at the capital, arose the stately cathedral; and, as if to complete the triumph of the

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How did he enter the city?—3. What took place? What did Cortés do? What is said of the Mexicans? What was the fate of Montezuma?—4. What did Cortés again do?—5. What did the Spaniards do? What is said of the prince? When did the empire of Mexico become a Spanish province? What religion was introduced?

cross, the foundations were laid with the broken images of the Mexican idols.

6. Shortly after the conquest of Mexico by Cortés, a similar expedition was undertaken against the rich and powerful empire of Peru, by Francis Pizarro, who sailed from Panama in 1525, and began to explore the shores of the Pacific. His enterprise was for some time impeded by a variety of causes; but, in 1531, having obtained from Charles V, of Spain, a commission as governor of the country, and a small force to enable him to conquer it, he continued his adventures, and advanced into the very heart of Peru, then an extensive empire, governed by sovereigns styled Incas.

7. The country at that time was divided into two hostile parties, by the two sons of the late monarch, who disputed the succession to the throne. Atahualpa, the younger, was finally successful; having defeated his brother in battle and taken him prisoner, he ordered him to be put to death. Both princes had previously endeavored to gain the assistance of the strangers, a circumstance which Pizarro did not fail to render subservient to his views. Marching to meet Atahualpa, under the cover of friendship, he suddenly attacked the army of the unsuspecting monarch. Four thousand of the Peruvians were slain, and Atahualpa himself fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The unhappy king, in order to procure his release, engaged to fill the room in which he was confined, measuring twenty-two feet in length and seventeen in breadth, with vessels of gold and silver, as high as he could reach. The contract was fulfilled on the part of the Peruvian sovereign, yet he did not obtain his liberty, but being brought to trial on a charge of treason, and, as the murderer of his brother and the usurper of his crown, he was put to death.

8. The entire country now submitted to the conquerors, who, for the better security, laid the foundation of the city of Lima, a short distance from the sea. The Peruvian monarchy being thus overthrown, discord began to prevail among the conquerors, and violent contentions followed. Almag'ro,

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6. After this, what similar expedition was undertaken? In 1531, having obtained a commission as governor, what did he do?—7. How was the country at that time divided? What had both princes endeavored to obtain? Marching to meet Atahualpa, what did Pizarro do? What did the monarch engage to do to procure his release? What was his fate?—8. What is now said of the country? What prevailed?

the rival of Pizarro, was taken prisoner, condemned and executed, and shortly afterwards Pizarro himself was assassinated. After his death the civil feuds continued until the year 1548, when the disasters which had so long desolated Peru were terminated, and the country reduced to a Spanish province by the wise and prudent measures of Pedro de la Gasca, who had been appointed governor.

9. It is not known how America was first peopled. At the time of the invasion of the Spaniards, the Mexicans and Peruvians had made considerable advances towards civilization. Their many magnificent palaces, temples, and pyramids prove that they carried architecture to a high degree of perfection. They understood the arts of sculpture, mining, and working the precious metals; agriculture was in a high state of advancement; they had a regular system of government, and a code of civil and religious laws. They worshipped the sun as the supreme deity; but the religion of the Peruvians possessed few of those sanguinary traits that characterized the Mexicans, who offered human victims in sacrifice. In the other parts of America the natives had made but little progress in civilization. The following are a few of the characteristics which distinguish the Indians of North America, north of Mexico.

10. In person, the Indians are generally tall, straight, and well proportioned. In complexion they are copper colored, with prominent cheek bones, dark eyes, and long, coarse, black hair. They are quick of apprehension and not wanting in genius. When provoked to anger they are sullen and reserved; but when determined on revenge, no danger can deter them, or absence cool their resentment. When captured by an enemy they never ask for life or betray the least signs of fear.

11. They had no books at the time they were first visited by Europeans, or any written literature, except rude hieroglyphics. Education, among them, was confined to the arts of war, hunting, and fishing. Their language was rude, but sonorous, metaphorical, and energetic. Their attempts at architecture and manufactures were confined chiefly to the

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What was the fate of Almagro and of Pizarro? In 1548, what took place?—9. At the time of the invasion, what is said of the Mexicans and Peruvians? What did they understand? What did they worship? What is said of the religion of the Peruvians?—10. What were the Indians in person? Their complexion? When provoked to anger? When captured?—11. What is said of books? Their language?

construction of wigwams, bows, and arrows, ornaments of various kinds, stone hatchets, and weaving a kind of coarse mat from bark or hemp. Their agriculture was very limited, and the articles they cultivated were mainly beans, peas, potatoes, and melons. Their skill in medicine was confined to a few simple prescriptions, but the diseases to which they were subject were few compared with those which prevail in civilized society.

12. The employments of the men were principally hunting, fishing, and war. The women were slaves. They dressed the food, tilled the fields, and performed nearly all the drudgery, besides attending to their domestic concerns. The ordinary utensils of the Indians consisted of a hatchet of stone and a few shells, which they used as knives. With these they scalped their enemies, dressed their game, etc. Money among the Indians was called wampum, and consisted of small beads wrought from shells. War was the favorite employment of these aborigines of North America. When they fought in the open plain, they rushed to the attack with the utmost fury, at the same time uttering the frightful war-whoop. If peace was concluded, the chiefs ratified the treaty by smoking, in succession, the calumet, or pipe of peace.

13. The Indian system of government was exceedingly simple. The head of each tribe was a chief, or sachem, sometimes so by birth, but generally chosen on account of his bravery, wisdom, or eloquence. His opinion, if supported by a council of the elders, was the only law. But he had no means of enforcing it on those who were unwilling to obey. His influence depended wholly on his personal character. The warriors followed him on a war-party only if they chose. There could be no compulsion. Proud as the Indian was of many things, that of which he was most proud was his personal freedom. The belief of the red men, however, was a ridiculous medley of idolatry and superstition. They had a multitude of manitous, or spirits—good and bad—to whom they paid honors. Pure, unmixed devil-worship prevailed. They also entertained some confused ideas of future rewards and punishments. Their chief mode of worship was to sing and dance around a large fire, to which they added prayer,

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Their arts? Their agriculture? What is said of their skill in medicine?—12. What were the employments of the men? Of the women? What were their domestic utensils? What was war?—13. What is said of their system of government? Of their belief? What was their chief mode of worship?

and sometimes they offered in sacrifice a kind of sweet-scented powder, blood and tobacco.

14. Marriage among them was, in general, a temporary contract. The men chose their wives agreeably to their fancy, and could put them away at pleasure; but generally the contracts were observed with much fidelity. Polygamy was prevalent. Their treatment of their wives was cruel and oppressive; they were considered as slaves, and treated as such. The rites of burial among the Indians differed but little throughout the continent. They generally made an opening in the ground, at the bottom of which the corpse, wrapped in skins or mats, was deposited. The weapons and ornaments of the deceased were buried with him, and a mound of earth was raised over the grave.

15. South America is a large peninsula, forming the southern portion of the New World. It is connected to North America by the Isthmus of Panama. The exploration and settlement of South America was early and rapid. In those enterprises Spain, of course, took the lead, and obtained the largest share of territory. We have seen how Pizarro established Spanish rule in Peru, and founded Lima as early as 1535. Six years later, the course of the Amazon, and the entire coast and interior of South America, had been explored by bold and roving pioneers. The Portuguese took possession of Brazil, while the Spaniards extended their sway over all the rest of South America. Towns and cities were founded, the Catholic religion was introduced among the Indians, and as years rolled on the materials for the building up of new nations multiplied. But here we have no room for the tiresome story of colonial changes, wars, and revolutions.

16. For centuries Spain maintained a hold on her South American colonies, but the wars of Napoleon I, and the consequent troubles in Spain, brought about a condition of things in which the colonies, at length, struck for complete independence. The earliest symptoms of revolution appeared in 1810 in the city of Caracas, but the rebels were defeated.

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14. What was marriage among them? What was prevalent? How did they treat their wives? What is said of the rites of burial among the Indians?—15. Describe South America. How is it connected to North America? What is said of its exploration and settlement? What nation obtained the largest share of territory? When was Lima founded? Six years later, what had been achieved? What nation took possession of Brazil? What is remarked in general of colonial progress?—16. What first induced the Spanish colonies of South America to strike for independence?

In 1813, however, General Simon Bolivar', at the head of an army from New Grenada, drove the Spaniards completely out of Venezuela. Bolivar subsequently lost this advantage, and for some years the tide of war fluctuated. At length, the revolutionists gained the upper hand so far as to unite Venezuela and New Grenada into a republic, to which was given the name of Colombia. The first Congress of the republic was held in May, 1821. Bolivar was elected President, and, in 1823, the independence of Colombia was recognized by the United States, and soon after by the chief nations of Europe.

17. In the meantime the various provinces of South America were not idle spectators. Everywhere the tocsin of independence was sounded, and, after many severe and bloody struggles, the republics of Peru, Chili, Venezuela, Ecuador, Bolivia, Uruguay, Paraguay, and the Argentine Republic were organized. Wars and revolutions, it is true, have in many instances retarded their progress and prosperity; but they had to learn the difficult art of governing themselves. These young and flourishing nations have a great future before them. The people are Catholics.

18. Brazil, the largest and one of the most important nations in South America, was settled by the Portuguese in 1531. It became a flourishing colony. When Napoleon directed an army to take possession of Portugal, in 1807, the royal family escaped to Brazil. King John VI at once turned his attention to the improvement of this magnificent colony, and opened its ports to the commerce of all nations. He was so well pleased with his new home that he even refused to return to Portugal when that country was freed from invaders. On the overthrow of Napoleon, Brazil was raised to the rank of a kingdom. It became independent in 1822 as an empire, and so remained until 1889. The executive authority was vested in the Emperor, who, besides being aided by a Council of State, was to act through responsible ministers. The legis-

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What occurred at Caracas in 1810? What is said of Bolivar? What name was given to the new republic? When was its first congress held? When was Columbia recognized by the United States? —17. What is remarked of the various provinces of South America? Name the other republics of South America. What have interfered with their progress? What religion is professed in these republics? —18. When was Brazil first settled and by whom? What happened in 1807? What did King John do? When did Brazil become independent? In whom is the executive authority? Of what does the vested legislature consist?

lature consisted of two houses, which sat four months every year. The Brazilians are Catholics. One of the recent rulers was Dom Pedro II, a grandson of the exiled king of Portugal, John VI. He was one of the most able and accomplished rulers of our time.

CHAPTER III

CANADA, VIRGINIA, AND NEW YORK.

THE French were among the first adventurers in North America. As early as the year 1504 they had visited the banks of Newfoundland, and in 1524, Francis I, of France, willing to share with his neighbors a portion of the New World, commissioned Verraza'no on a voyage of discovery. This navigator explored a great part of the shores of North America. About ten years after this James Cartier, under a similar commission from the king of France, sailed to the New World, entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, and called it New France. This name was subsequently changed to that of Canada.

2. In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, under a commission from Queen Elizabeth, of England, sent to our coast Captains Amadas and Barlow, who entered Pamlico Sound, and proceeding to Roanoke Island, near the mouth of Albemarle Sound, took possession of the country for the crown of England. On their return, they gave so flattering an account of the beauty and fertility of the country, that Elizabeth bestowed on it the name Virginia, as a memorial that it had been discovered during the reign of a virgin queen. Several attempts to form a settlement in Virginia were made by Sir Walter Raleigh. He despatched some small vessels, under the command of Richard Granville, carrying one hundred and eighty adventurers, who were landed on the Isle of Roanoke; but the colonists, deluded by the prospect of finding mines of the precious metals, neglected the cultivation of the soil. They were, in consequence, reduced to the utmost distress by

Of what religion are the Brazilians? Who is the present emperor?

CHAPTER III.—1. Who were among the first adventurers in North America? In 1524, what was done by Francis I? Who next sailed to the new world? What was the country called?—2. In 1584, who arrived in America? On his return what did he give? What is said of his attemps to form a settlement? Of the colonists?

famine; many of their number returned to England with Sir Francis Drake, while others perished from disease, or were destroyed by the Indians.

3. This unsuccessful attempt withdrew for some time the attention of the English from these distant regions. In 1602, however, Bartholomew Gosnold sailed from England, and discovered Cape Cod, which name he gave it on account of the number of codfish caught near it. From this period we find that the spirit of adventure again revived. In 1606, James I, of England, granted letters-patent, an exclusive right or privilege, to the London and Plymouth Companies, by which they were authorized to possess and occupy all the territory lying between the 34th and 45th degrees of north latitude, which at that time was included under the common name of Virginia. To the former company was assigned the section of country included between the 41st and 34th degrees of north latitude, called South Virginia; and to the latter that part of the territory lying to the north, called North Virginia.

4. Under this patent, the London Company, in 1607, sent out a vessel commanded by Captain Newport, and carrying one hundred and five adventurers. After a tedious voyage of four months, the colonists arrived at the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay, and sailed some distance up the Powhatan, now called the James River, where they built a fort, and laid the foundation of a town, which, in honor of their king, they called Jamestown. The government of the colony was framed by the London Company, and was administered by a council of seven persons, with a president chosen from among their own number.

5. The name of the first president was Wingfield, but the most distinguished person in the council was the celebrated Captain John Smith, who, from the active part which he took in the transactions of the new settlement, has been styled "Father of the Colony." The life and actions of this extraordinary man resemble the deeds of a hero of romance. In the early part of his career he had the command of a body of cavalry in the Austrian army, and, during a contest with the Turks, was taken prisoner, and sent as a slave to Constanti-

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3. In 1602, what took place? In 1606, what was granted by James? What was assigned to the former? To the latter?—4. What did the London Company do in 1607? Where did they arrive? What town did they commence?—5. Who was the most distinguished person? In early life what had he been?

nople, from which he afterwards obtained his release and returned to England. His romantic and enterprising spirit led him to engage in an expedition to the New World, and, by his superior abilities, the colony was repeatedly rescued from the brink of ruin.

6. Unfortunately for the colonists, they were soon involved in hostilities with the natives, whose hatred of the English was occasioned by the cruel treatment they had previously experienced from Sir Richard Granville, who burnt an entire Indian village and destroyed their corn, in retaliation for their stealing a silver cup. The singular adventures of Captain Smith form a conspicuous portion of the history of the colony. On one occasion, while exploring the country, he was taken prisoner by a band of two hundred Indians; but, charmed with his valor and the various arts which he used to astonish or please them, they released him from captivity. After this he was again taken by a party of three hundred, who led him in triumph to Powhat'an, their king. The sentence of death was immediately pronounced against him, and he was conducted to the place of execution. His head was laid upon a stone, and the savages, with uplifted clubs, were about to despatch their victim, when Pocahon'tas, the favorite daughter of Powhatan, threw herself between the prisoner and the executioners, and by her tears and entreaties prevailed on her father to recall the sentence. Her prayers were heard, and Smith was set at liberty. Some authorities reject this pretty story.

7. In 1609, Powhatan had concerted measures for the destruction of the colony; but Pocahontas, who had always manifested a friendly disposition towards the English, visited Jamestown alone, on a dark and stormy night, and disclosed to Captain Smith the designs of her father; the colony was by this means saved from destruction. Pocahontas, during a subsequent visit to Jamestown, was there detained, and her father, who was devotedly attached to his daughter, concluded a treaty with the English on their own terms. Pocahontas was afterwards married, with the consent of her father, to Rolfe, a young planter of a respectable family. After their nuptials, which were celebrated with great pomp, Rolfe and

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6. How was the antipathy of the natives to the English occasioned? Relate the adventures of Captain Smith.—7. In 1609, what was concerted? How was it prevented? What is said of Pocahontas on a subsequent visit to Jamestown? To whom was she married?

the princess sailed for England, where she was instructed in the Christian religion, and publicly baptized. She died at Gravesend, in the twenty-second year of her age, leaving one son, from whom are descended some of the most respectable families of Virginia.

8. During the first year the colonists suffered severely from want of provisions and from sickness, which in a few months carried off half their number; but by the arrival of new adventurers, the population of the colony, at the close of the year, amounted to about two hundred persons. During the year 1609, Captain Smith, in consequence of an injury he received by the accidental explosion of gunpowder, was obliged to return to England for medical aid. His absence was a severe loss to the colony. In consequence of a waste of provisions, a most distressing famine followed. The period was long known by the name of "the starving time." So dreadful was its effect, that in the space of six months the colonists were reduced from nearly five hundred to sixty. The small remnant that survived were so disheartened by these disasters that they resolved to abandon the settlement, and return to England. From this they were prevented by the timely arrival of Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor, with one hundred and fifty men, and a large supply of provisions. Through his exertions they were induced to remain, and their number being increased by new arrivals, the condition of the colony soon began to assume a prosperous appearance.

9. The planters were generally men without families. They had emigrated with a prospect of obtaining wealth, and expected eventually to return to their native country. But with a view of attaching them to the new settlement, and of rendering their residence permanent in the colony, an expedient was devised for supplying them with wives. Accordingly, a number of unmarried women were sent over from England, to be given to such as were willing to pay the cost of their transportation. This charge was at first one hundred pounds of tobacco; but as the number diminished, it was raised to one

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Where did they sail for? Where did she die?—8. From what did the colonists suffer? What happened during the year 1609? In consequence of waste of provisions, what followed? In six months, to what number were the colonists reduced? What did they resolve? How were they prevented?—9. Who were the planters? With a view of attaching them to the settlement, what expedient was devised?

hundred and fifty pounds. At the time, the price of tobacco was three shillings a pound.

10. The year 1620 was rendered memorable by the introduction of negro slavery into America. A Dutch vessel from the coast of Guinea sailed up the James river, having on board about twenty negroes, who were sold as slaves to the planters of Virginia. And thus began a shameful institution, which it took nearly two and a half centuries and a terrible civil war to abolish.

The colony had enjoyed, for some time, a great degree of prosperity. In 1622, however, it experienced a stroke that nearly proved fatal to its existence. Powhatan died in 1618, and was succeeded by his son, who did not inherit the friendly disposition of his father towards the English. A deliberate plan for the annihilation of the colony at one blow was concerted, and succeeded to a fearful extent. On the twenty-second of March, while the colonists were engaged in their usual occupations, the Indians fell upon them, sparing neither age nor sex, and in one fatal hour three hundred and forty-seven persons fell victims to their cruelty.

11. This treachery of the Indians was followed by a war of extermination, during which the colonists indulged in acts of atrocity little inferior to those by which they had been visited. They fell upon the Indians at the approach of harvest, when they knew the attack would prove most fatal, destroyed their crops of corn, and, in their fury, murdered all who came in their way, or drove them into the forest, where so many perished with hunger that some of the tribes nearest to the colony were annihilated.

12. In 1624, the London Company, which had been so active in establishing a settlement in Virginia, was dissolved by an arbitrary act of King James I, who invested the government of the colony in the crown, and appointed a governor, with a council of twelve persons, to aid him in the administration. The prosperity of the colony was subsequently retarded during the arbitrary administration of Sir John Harvey; but in 1639, Sir William Berkeley, a man of superior ability, was appointed governor, when it again began to

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10. For what is the year 1620 rendered memorable? In what manner? In 1623, what deliberate plan was formed? What took place on the 22d of March?—11. By what was this followed? When did they fall upon the Indians?—12. In 1624, what took place? How was the prosperity of the colony again retarded?

flourish. During the revolution in England, which terminated in the execution of Charles, the colonists preserved their loyalty to the king. In 1651, the commonwealth, under Cromwell, took vigorous measures for the reduction of the colony. Berkeley made a spirited resistance; but being obliged to yield to a superior force, he retired from public life, and Mathews was appointed governor by Cromwell.

13. On the death of Mathews, the spirit of opposition was again manifested. The colonists threw off their allegiance to the commonwealth, recalled Berkeley from his retirement, erected the royal standard, and proclaimed Charles II, son of the late king, as their lawful sovereign. Fortunately for the colonists, the restoration of Charles, which shortly afterwards took place, preserved them from the chastisement to which their previous declaration in his favor had exposed them. In 1676, towards the close of Berkeley's administration, the restriction imposed on trade by the king occasioned considerable discontent in the colony, and finally gave rise to an insurrection, known as Bacon's Rebellion, and so called from the name of its leader. During the progress of this unfortunate insurrection, the country was given up to pillage, Jamestown was burnt, and all the horrors of civil war continued to rage, until they were terminated by the death of Bacon.

14. The territory now comprising the Middle States of our republic was originally settled by the Dutch and the Swedes, In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in the service of the East India Company, of Holland, on a voyage in search of a northwest passage to India, touched at Long Island, and sailed up the river which now bears his name. The right of discovery being thus acquired, and the favorable report of the country, induced a company of Dutch adventurers to attempt a settlement on the Hudson river about the year 1613. They built a fort near the present site of Albany, called Fort Orange, and another with some few trading houses on Manhattan Island, where the city of New York now stands, and named the latter settlement New Amsterdam. The whole country was called New Netherlands.

During the revolution in England, what is said of the colonists? In 1651, what took place?—13. On the death of Mathews, what did the colonists do? In 1676, what did the restrictions of trade occasion? How was it terminated?—14. By whom was the territory comprising the Middle States settled? In 1609, what took place? Where did they build a fort? What did they call the settlements?

15. The Swedes had already made a settlement on the Delaware River, and held possession of the territory until its final subjugation by the Dutch colonists of New Netherlands, under their enterprising governor, Stuyvesant. The extension of the New England settlements occasioned a series of disputes and contests with their neighbors in New Netherlands. In 1664, Charles II, who had been restored to the throne of his father, forgetful of the friends who had given him a shelter during his exile, sought every pretext for a dispute with Holland. Among other things, he asserted a claim to the colony possessed by that country in America, and accordingly conveyed it to his brother, James, the Duke of York. The duke made immediate preparations for carrying the king's grant into effect, and for that purpose Colonel Nichols was sent out with a fleet, having on board a considerable force. After touching at Boston, he sailed for New Amsterdam, and, anchoring before the place, demanded its surrender. Stuyvesant, the Dutch Governor, after some opposition, was obliged to yield to the English; and the whole territory thus became subject to the British crown; and the country, in honor of the duke, was called New York.

CHAPTER IV

THE NEW ENGLAND SETTLEMENTS.

IN 1607, about the same time that the colonists in Virginia laid the foundation of Jamestown, a settlement was commenced on the Kennebec river, under the direction of the Plymouth Company; but owing to successive misfortunes, it was abandoned for the time. In 1614, the country was again visited by Captain Smith, so celebrated in the history of Virginia. He examined the coast from the Penobscot river to Cape Cod, and, on his return, prepared a map of the country, to which he gave the name New England.

2. In 1620, a patent was granted by King James I to Sir Ferdinando Gorges and others, called the Council of Plymouth, for the purpose of settling a colony in New England.

15. Where had the Swedes settled? In 1664, what did Charles do? What did he claim, and to whom did he convey it? What did the Duke of York do? What is said of Stuyvesant?

CHAPTER IV.—1. In 1607, where was a settlement commenced? By whom was the country visited in 1614? On his return, what did he do?—2. In 1620, what was granted?

Their patent included all the territory between the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude. During the same year in which the patent was obtained, the first permanent settlement in New England was commenced at Plymouth, Massachusetts, by a body of Pilgrims, also known as Brownists, from the name of the founder of their sect.

3. The Pilgrims, who had suffered continual persecution in England on account of their dissent from the tenets of the Established Church, had taken refuge in Holland, under the charge of their minister, John Robinson; but not finding their new residence agreeable, from various causes, they resolved to seek an asylum from oppression by removing to the wilds of America. After having experienced many delays and disappointments, a patent was obtained, assigning to them a tract of land within the limits of the Virginia charter.

4. On the morning of the 22d of July, 1620, Robinson, their minister, kneeling in prayer on the seashore at Delfthaven, consecrated the embarkation of the Pilgrims. They touched at Southampton, in England, from which place they sailed on the 5th of August; but before proceeding far they were obliged to return, in order to repair the smaller of their vessels, called the Speedwell, which they were finally compelled to abandon, and to prosecute their voyage in the Mayflower. At length, on the 6th of September, they sailed from Plymouth, in England, for the Hudson river; but by the treachery of the captain, who is supposed to have been bribed by the Dutch, they were carried much further to the north, and, after a stormy passage, they came in sight of Cape Cod.

5. After some weeks spent in searching for a suitable place to land, during which they were exposed to incredible sufferings from the inclemency of the season, the Mayflower was safely moored in a beautiful harbor, to which, in grateful remembrance of the last port they left in England, they gave the name of Plymouth. On the morning of the 20th of December, 1620, after imploring the divine assistance, the Pilgrims, to the number of one hundred and one, landed upon

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During the same year, what was commenced at Plymouth?—3. Where had the Puritans taken refuge? What did they resolve?—4. On the 22d of July, 1620, what took place? Where did they touch? What were they finally compelled to do? When and from what place did they sail?—5. Where was the Mayflower moored? On the 20th of December, what was done?

the rock of Plymouth. The spot on which their first steps rested is still held in deep veneration by their descendants, and the day of their landing is yet celebrated with enthusiasm.

6. Though the Pilgrims had succeeded in landing, their sufferings and distress were only about to commence. After a long and tedious voyage, they found themselves cast upon an unknown and hostile coast; exposed to all the rigors of a New England winter, without a roof to shelter them from the storm. Their supply of provisions was limited, and to fill up the measure of their sufferings, they were visited by a distressing sickness. By these united calamities, in three months after their landing, they were reduced to nearly one-half of their original number. John Carver, the first governor, died in March, and William Bradford was chosen to succeed him. The election of the governor took place annually, and at first he had but one assistant. The number of assistants was afterwards increased to five, and at length to seven.

7. With a desire to conform to the simplicity of the apostolic times, the Pilgrims at first held all their property in common. This was one of the causes of scarcity that for some time prevailed in the country. In the spring of 1623, each family was allowed a piece of ground for its cultivation, and after the harvest of that year, no general lack of provisions was experienced. For the defence of the colony against the hostilities of the natives, a military organization was formed, and Captain Miles Standish, a man of considerable courage, was appointed to the command. In March, 1621, they received a friendly visit from Samoset, one of the Wam′-panoags, who gave them a cordial welcome, and in the name of his tribe allowed them to retain possession of the soil which they occupied, since there was not one of the original possessors then living to claim it.

8. From him they obtained important information respecting the country, and learned that a short time previous to their arrival, a dreadful pestilence had carried off almost all the Indians in the vicinity. In the same month, Massasoit′,

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What is said of the spot? What is said of the Pilgrims? Of their supply of provisions? By these calamities, to what were they reduced? Who was their first governor?—7. With a desire to conform, etc., what did the Pilgrims do? In 1623, what was each family allowed? In March, 1621, what did they receive?—8. From him what did they obtain?

the most powerful chief in that region, paid a visit to the colony, and entered into a league of friendship with the settlers, which was strictly observed for upwards of fifty years.

9. The colony increased but slowly, and at the end of ten years the population did not exceed three hundred. In 1628, the colony of Massachu'setts Bay was commenced by a company of adventurers, under John Endicott, who formed a settlement at Naumkeag, to which he gave the Scripture name of Salem. It might readily be supposed that the men who had bled under the lash of persecution for their religious opinions, would have learned to respect those opinions in others. While we commend that noble spirit which induced them to quit their native soil, and brave a thousand dangers in a hostile land, in order that they might enjoy the unrestrained exercise of their religious principles, we can not refrain from disavowing that spirit of intolerance which they exercised among themselves.

10. Some of the colonists retained a high veneration for the ritual of the Protestant Church of England, and refusing to conform to the colonial establishment, they assembled at a separate place of worship. Endicott called before him two of the principal offenders and sentenced them to banishment. They were sent home by the first vessel returning to England. In 1630, another company of adventurers, over fifteen hundred in number, under John Winthrop, who was appointed governor, arrived in Massachusetts, and commenced the settlement of Charlestown, Boston, and other places in that vicinity. At the first General Court held at Charlestown a law was passed, declaring that none should be free or have any share in the government, except those who had been received as members of the Church.

11. In the spring of 1623, the settlement of New Hampshire was commenced at Dover and Portsmouth, by persons sent out under the patronage of Sir Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason, to whom the country had been granted. These settlements were united to Massachusetts in 1641, and remained a part of that colony until 1678, when New Hampshire obtained a separate government. In 1635, the colony

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In the same month who paid a visit to the colony?—9. In 1628, what colony was commenced? What might be supposed?—10. What did some of the colonists retain? What did Endicott do? In 1630, what took place? At the first general court at Charlestown, what law was passed?—11. In 1623, what settlement was commenced? By whom?

of Connecticut was commenced by a few families, with their favorite minister, Hooker, who left Massachusetts, and after a fatiguing march through the wilderness, settled on the west side of the Connecticut river, and laid the foundation of Windsor and Wethersfield.

12. Roger Williams, a minister at Salem, having been banished from Massachusetts on account of his religious opinions, with a few companions commenced the settlement of Rhode Island, on the site where the city of Providence now stands, which name they gave to the place in grateful acknowledgment of the divine protection. About two years after this, Coddington, having been also banished from Massachusetts, with seventy-six others, for holding opinions which were deemed erroneous by the colonial establishment, purchased from the Indians, Aquetneck, a fertile island in Narragan'sett Bay, and named it Rhode Island, under which title the previous settlement by Roger Williams was afterwards included.

13. In 1644, Williams visited England as agent of the settlers, and obtained from the English Parliament, shortly after the commencement of the civil war, a free charter of incorporation for Providence and Rhode Island plantations. The charter was confirmed and its constitutional powers enlarged in the reign of Charles II. By this instrument it was ordered, "that none were to be molested for any difference of opinion in matters of religion;" yet the very first assembly convened under its authority had the bigotry and injustice to exclude Catholics from voting at elections, and from every office in the government.

14. The friendly intercourse which had for some time existed between the colonists and the natives, began by degrees to be interrupted. The Indians in the vicinity of Massachusetts Bay were few and unwarlike, and having received a stipulated compensation for the land from the early settlers, they evinced no hostile disposition; but Connecticut and Rhode Island had to contend with numerous and powerful tribes. Among these, the Narragan'setts and Pe'quods were the most formidable. The latter having sent a deputation to their neighbors, the Narragansetts, requested them to for-

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When and by whom was Connecticut commenced?—12. What is related of Roger Williams? Two years after this, what did Coddington do?—13. In 1644, what did Williams do and obtain? By this instrument, what was ordered? Yet what was done by the first assembly?—14. What is said of the Indians in the vicinity? Which were the most formidable tribes?

get for a season their mutual animosities, and to coöperate in expelling the common enemy from the country. But the envious Narragansetts, considering this as a favorable opportunity for weakening or totally destroying a powerful rival, made known their hostile intentions to the Governor of Massachusetts, and united in alliance with the colonists against them.

15. The Pequods had pitched their camp in the middle of a swamp, near the head of Mystic river, and fortified it with palisades; but the colonists, under Captain Mason, marched to the place unperceived, and were about to enter the camp through a pass, which by some unaccountable neglect was left open, when the alarm of their approach was given by a faithful dog. Instantly the warriors flew to arms and prepared to repel the attack; but in a few moments more the wigwams in which the Indians slept were enveloped in flames. The carnage was dreadful. Aroused from their slumbers by the discharge of musketry, the affrighted Indians rushed in consternation from their burning tenements. As they came forth they were received by the swords of the enemy; if they attempted to escape by scaling the palisades, they were met by a shower of balls. Many, afraid to venture out, perished in the flames; while others, recoiling from the deadly weapons of the foe, rushed back into the devouring element and shared the fate of their companions. In a few minutes five or six hundred lay gasping in their blood or were silent in the arms of death. Those that were captured, above the number of two hundred, were either sold as slaves abroad or reduced to servitude by the English at home. So complete was the victory, that in a few months the nation of Pequods was entirely destroyed, and even their verv name was no longer heard.

16. The danger to which they were exposed by the encroachments of foreign enemies and domestic hostilities, induced the four colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, to enter into an alliance for their mutual defence, under the title of the United Colonies of New England, A. D. 1643. This confederation, which was

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What did the Pequods request? What did the envious Narragansetts do?—15. Where had the Pequods pitched their camp? What did the colonists do? Describe the slaughter that followed. What was done with those who were captured?—16. What did their danger induce the colonists to do?

regulated by two delegates from each colony, subsisted with but little alteration until their charters were annulled by Charles II. As many of the early settlers were men of talent and education, they gave their earliest attention to the interest of learning and to the establishment of schools. In 1638, a few years after the settlement of Massachusetts, Har'vard University, the oldest institution of learning in the country, was founded at Cambridge.

17. Although the colonists of New England possessed many excellent traits of character, they were not without serious failings. While they claim our admiration for their enterprise, for their love of liberty and attention to the interests of education, we are compelled to regard their misguided zeal in matters of religion with mingled feelings of sorrow and disapprobation. They were bigots. In 1656, a number of unoffending Quakers, flying from persecution at home, sought an asylum among their Christian brethren in New England; but the novelty of their mode of worship greatly offended the ministers of the established Church. They were imprisoned and banished at the first opportunity. A law was then passed prohibiting the immigration of Quakers to Massachusetts; and forbidding their return, in case of banishment, under the penalty of death. In consequence of these severe proscriptions, several of these unoffending people were hanged.

18. In Connecticut the Quakers were treated with little less severity. A law was passed against them, subjecting the offender to imprisonment at hard labor, and the tongue to be pierced through with a red-hot iron. Catholics were treated with equal ferocity. In 1647, the Legislature of Massachusetts enacted that Jesuits entering the colony should be expelled, and if they returned—hanged. It was the same in Connecticut, where any one might seize a Catholic priest, even without a warrant. These instances of intolerance, which have cast a shadow upon the memory of the Puritan settlers, are not cited to wound the feelings of their descendants, but simply to remind them that it is their duty to avoid the

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How long did this Confederation subsist? To what did they give their earliest attention? When was Harvard University founded?—17. While they claim our admiration, what are we compelled to do? In 1656, what took place? What law was passed?—18. In Connecticut, what law was passed? How were Catholics treated? Why are these instances of intolerance mentioned?

repetition of these sad errors, and that it is incumbent on all to discountenance religious intolerance in every form.

19. After the termination of the Pequod war, the New England settlements enjoyed a long continuance of peace, during which they greatly increased in wealth and population. The treatment, however, which the Indians had generally received from the early English adventurers, had given them great reason to regard the Europeans with an eye of jealousy and distrust; and it must be confessed that the colonists, in their proceedings with regard to the natives, were often directed by principles of cruelty and injustice, as a reference to the records of those times will clearly prove. In 1675, the peace which long subsisted was interrupted, and the colonists found themselves involved in a destructive war with Philip, king of the Wam'panoags, whose principal residence was at Mount Hope, Rhode Island.

20. Philip, equally eminent for his warlike character and undaunted courage, was the most formidable enemy ever encountered by the colonists. Having spent four years in maturing the plan of an extensive conspiracy, which had for its object the utter extermination of the English, he commenced hostilities, and by means of his alliances was able to bring four thousand warriors into the field. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Plymouth united against him. The war was commenced with great energy and spirit on both sides, and for some time conducted with equal success. In the great battle known by the name of the Swamp Fight, two hundred and thirty of the colonists were killed, while one thousand of the Indian warriors are supposed to have perished, and over five hundred of their wigwams were burned. At length an end was put to these disasters, in 1676, by the death of Philip, who was shot by one of his own men, who had joined the party of the English under the famous Captain Benjamin Church.

21. At the commencement of this unhappy war, the English population amounted to nearly sixty thousand persons, of whom six hundred had fallen in battle during the conflict, besides a much greater number of women and children, who were led into a miserable captivity by the Indians. Scarcely

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19. After the Pequod war, what did New England enjoy? In 1675, what took place?—20. What is said of Philip? How was the war conducted? How many fell on both sides in the Swamp Fight? What was the end of Philip?—21. At the commencement of the war, what is said of the English?

a family or an individual remained who had not to mourn the loss of a relative or a friend. After the termination of this conflict, however, the New England colonies were freed from the hostilities of the natives until the war with the French, who employed the Indians as auxiliaries.

22. About the year 1692, the people of Salem were thrown into the utmost consternation by the supposed power of witchcraft. Mather, a minister of New England, who was a firm believer in such ridiculous stories, relates a number of those singular events, which at the present time are more amusing than alarming. Several laws were made against witchcraft, and not until twenty persons, of both sexes, had been executed, did the frenzy begin to decline.

CHAPTER V

MARYLAND AND ITS CATHOLIC FOUNDERS.

THE founder of Maryland was Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an enterprising Catholic, who was distinguished as a statesman, and had held the office of Secretary of State in the reign of James I, of England. With the idea of forming in America an asylum for himself and his sorely persecuted brethren, he sailed to Virginia about the year 1631; but meeting an unwelcome reception there on account of his religion, he fixed his attention upon a region beyond the Potomac, and finding it unoccupied and well adapted to his purpose, he immediately returned to England and obtained of Charles I a grant of the territory. From Henrietta Maria, the consort of Charles, the country was called Maryland.

2. Before the patent was completed, Sir George died, and the grant was transferred to his eldest son, Cecilius Calvert, who inherited the titles of his father. Preparations were immediately made for the settlement of a colony. Remaining in England himself, Cecilius Calvert appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, as governor of the intended settlement. On

What had every family to mourn?—22. What took place in 1692? What laws were made?

CHAPTER V.—1. Who was the founder of Maryland? Why did he remove to America? Where did he next fix his attention? From whom was the country named?—2. What happened before the patent was complete? Who was appointed governor?

the 22d of November, in the year 1633, emigrants to the number of about two hundred, among whom were two Jesuits—Fathers Andrew White and John Altham—set sail from the Isle of Wight in two small vessels, the Ark and Dove, and after a tedious passage arrived in March of the following year on the shores of the Chesapeake. Following the example of Columbus, these Catholic colonists immediately erected a cross and returned thanks to God, who had conducted the voyage to so happy an issue, and then took possession of the country in the name of their sovereign. After having purchased the land from the natives, they commenced the building of the town of St. Mary, which for many years remained the capital of the colony.

3. The leading features of policy adopted by the founders of this colony, claim our warmest admiration. Their intercourse with the Indian tribes was marked by the strictest justice and humanity. At the same time the unrestrained exercise in matters of religion, granted to the professors of every creed, reflects the highest honor upon the memory of Lord Baltimore and his benevolent associates. Whilst the Episcopalians in Virginia would suffer no other form of worship among them except that of the Church of England, and whilst the Puritans of New England punished with fines, tortures, and exile all those who differed from their creed, the Catholics of Maryland, transcending the proscriptive principles of the age, extended their arms and invited among them the victims of intolerance from every clime.*

4. The tranquillity of the colony was for some time interrupted by the intrigues of Clayborne, who finally supplanted the proprietor, and compelled him to retire from the settlement. The very first act of those who succeeded in the government was to strike out the fairest feature in the original constitution of the colony, namely, religious toleration, and

* Bancroft, in his *History of the United States*, speaking of Maryland, says: "Its history is the history of benevolence, gratitude, and toleration. The Roman Catholics who were oppressed by the laws of England, were sure to find a peaceful asylum in the quiet harbors of the Chesapeake, and there, too, Protestants were sheltered from Protestant intolerance."

When and where did they sail from? What were the names of the vessels? What did they immediately do?—3. What claim our admiration? What reflects the highest honor on Lord Baltimore, etc.? What did the Catholics of Maryland do?—4. How was the tranquillity of the colony interrupted? What was the first act of those who succeeded in the government?

to enact the severest penalties against the professors of every creed at variance with that of the Protestant Church of England. Thus the Catholics were doomed to see themselves deprived of the free exercise of their own religion within the limits of that colony in which they had labored to establish the blessing of toleration, and that, too, by the very persons to whom their benevolence had granted an asylum and home. After several years of disorder, however, the authority of the Catholic proprietor was restored, and the province began to assume its usual prosperity.

CHAPTER VI

PENNSYLVANIA AND ITS FAMOUS FOUNDER.

IN 1681, the settlement of Pennsylvania was commenced under the direction of the celebrated William Penn, after whom the state is named. This eminent man was the son of Admiral Penn, who served in the British navy during the protectorate of Cromwell, and during a part of the reign of Charles II. In early life he embraced the tenets of Quakers, or Friends, and shared largely of the persecution which was carried on in England against them, being repeatedly harassed by fines and imprisonment. Roused at length by these unjust and intolerant proceedings, Penn resolved to seek in the New World an asylum from the bigotry and oppression of the Old. Accordingly, he applied to Charles II, from whom he obtained the grant of a large tract of country, including the present state of Pennsylvania, in consideration of a debt due from the crown to his father.

2. The first colonists arrived in the country in 1681, and began a settlement above the confluence of the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. In the month of October of the following year, Penn arrived in the colony, accompanied by two thousand associates, chiefly of the denomination of the Friends, or Quakers, and during the next year laid out the plan for the city of Philadelphia. Penn's first care after his arrival

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What were the Catholics doomed to see?

CHAPTER VI.—1. When and by whom was the settlement of Pennsylvania commenced? What is said of him? What did Penn resolve?—2. When and where did the first colony arrive? When did Penn arrive? What city did he lay out?

was to conciliate the friendship of the Indians. Accordingly, having assembled a council, he obtained possession of the land by a fair purchase, giving them in exchange such European goods as were useful to them, and entered into a solemn treaty with them, which was inviolably observed for a period of seventy years.

3. His system of government was established on the most humane and liberal principles. After the example of Lord Baltimore, he made civil and religious liberty the basis of all his institutions, and to these wise regulations may be attributed the rapid advancement of Pennsylvania in population, enterprise, and importance. In addition to the territory included in the grant which he obtained from King Charles, Penn became the proprietor of a tract of land, the present state of Delaware, which he obtained by purchase from the Duke of York. Having several times visited England, he at length died at London in 1718, at the age of seventy-five years.

CHAPTER VII

DELAWARE, NEW JERSEY, THE CAROLINAS, AND GEORGIA.

DELAWARE was first settled in 1638, by a company of Swedes, and later Finns, who, having arrived in the country, purchased from the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the falls of the Delaware, and commenced a settlement at the mouth of Christiana creek, near Wilmington. They named the country New Sweden. But their empire was not destined to be of long duration. In 1655, the Dutch in the neighboring colony of the New Netherlands, who had always regarded the Swedish settlement with an eye of jealousy, under their governor, Peter Stuyvesant, invaded New Sweden, and reduced it to complete subjection. When the English afterwards conquered New York, they also obtained Delaware, which was considered a part of that territory.

What was his first care?—3. What is said of his system of government? Of what did Penn become the proprietor? Where and when did he die?

CHAPTER VII.—1. When and by whom was Delaware settled? In 1655, what took place?

2. New Jersey was first settled by Hollanders and Swedes. When New York was ceded by Charles II to his brother, the Duke of York, all the territory between the Hudson and Delaware rivers was included in the grant. The tract comprising the present state of New Jersey, he sold to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. In 1674, Lord Berkeley disposed of his share of New Jersey to two English Quakers, named Fenwicke and Byllinge; and in the year 1682, William Penn and eleven others of the Society of Friends became the proprietors of the remainder of the province, which they purchased from Sir George Carteret. The first governor was the celebrated Robert Barclay, the author of the "Apology for the Quakers," whose administration was for life.

3. North and South Carolina now claim our attention. Towards the middle of the seventeenth century a considerable number of persons, suffering in Virginia from religious intolerance, removed beyond the limits of that colony, and commenced a settlement in a portion of country north of Albemarle sound, and shortly afterwards another company of adventurers from Massachusetts settled near Cape Fear. In 1663, Charles II granted to Lord Clarendon and others the entire tract of land lying between the thirty-first and thirty-sixth degree of north latitude, and extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

4. The proprietors endeavored to hasten the settlement of this extensive region by establishing a liberal government, allowing perfect freedom in religion, and by offering a portion of land for the first five years at a half-penny an acre. They afterwards extended their settlements to the banks of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, where Charleston now stands; and in 1739, the title of the land was sold to the crown, after which the country was divided into North and South Carolina, and a royal governor appointed over each. During the year 1700, the growth of cotton was introduced, and two years later that of rice, which articles subsequently became the prominent staples of those states.

5. Georgia, the last settled of the thirteen original states

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2. By whom was New Jersey settled? In 1674, what did Lord Berkeley do? Who afterwards became the proprietors?—3. What provinces next claim our attention? Towards the middle of the seventeenth century what was done? In 1663, what did Charles grant?—4. What did the proprietors do? In 1739, what was done? What was introduced in 1700?—5. Which was the last of the thirteen States?

that revolted against Great Britain, received its name from George II. In 1732, one hundred and sixteen persons embarked from England, under General Oglethorpe, and arrived at Charleston early in the following year. From Charleston they sailed to their destined territory, and shortly after their arrival they laid the foundation of the city of Savannah. For several years after the settlement was commenced, the colony remained in a languishing state, but after the surrender of its charter to the crown, it began to flourish.

6. In the year 1736, the famous John Wesley arrived in Georgia, and commenced his missionary labors among the colonists and Indians, but not meeting with the desired success, he returned again to England. Oglethorpe was distinguished as a soldier and a statesman. At an early age he served on the continent of Europe under the celebrated Prince Eugene, until the return of peace; and on his return to England he was elected a member of the British Parliament. At the beginning of the American revolution he was offered the command of the British army, which high office he thought proper to decline. He died shortly after the contest was decided, at the advanced age of ninety-seven years.

CHAPTER VIII

THE FRENCH WAR, AND THE CONQUEST OF CANADA.

AS we have already learned, the French made settlements in Canada, on the banks of the St. Lawrence, about the same time that the English colony at Jamestown was commenced in Virginia. In 1608, Champlain founded the city of Quebec. Besides the possession of Canada at the north, France had also a territory on the Mississippi, at the south, called Louisiana. The boundary between the English and French colonies had long been a subject of dispute and fruitless negotiations. It had been for some time a favorable object on the part of France to connect her distant possessions, by

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When and by whom was the settlement commenced? Of what city did they lay the foundation?—6. In the year 1736 who arrived? What is said of Oglethorpe? When did he die?

CHAPTER VIII.—1. Where had the French made settlements? What had long been a subject of dispute? What was the object of the French?

erecting forts along the Ohio and the lakes, and thus to restrict the British to a limited territory on the sea-coast.

2. This proceeding on the part of France alarmed the English, and called forth the most decisive measures. Repeated complaints of violence having been made to the governor of Virginia, he determined to send a messenger to the French commander at Fort Duquesne (Du-ken′), on the Ohio, where Pittsburgh now stands, to demand the reasons of his hostile conduct, and to insist that he should evacuate the fort. The choice of a person to perform this arduous undertaking fell upon George Washington, the future deliverer of his country, then a young man in the twenty-first year of his age. Having received his instructions from the governor, he departed on his perilous journey to the French settlement, a distance of nearly four hundred miles, one-half of the route being through a wilderness inhabited by hostile savages. On the way, his horse failing, he proceeded on foot, accompanied by a single companion, with a gun in his hand and a pack on his shoulders. On the 12th of December he reached the French fort, delivered his message to the commander, and by the middle of January returned in safety with an answer to the governor of Virginia.

3. The reply not proving satisfactory, the organization of a regiment was immediately commenced in Virginia, to support the claims of Great Britain over the disputed territory. Fry was appointed colonel of this regiment, and young Washington lieutenant-colonel; but on the death of Fry, which happened shortly after his appointment, the command devolved on Washington. Without delay Washington marched forward at the head of this small force to dislodge the French from Fort Duquesne, situated at the confluence of the Allegheny and Monongahe′la rivers. But before he reached the place, he was informed that the garrison had been strongly reinforced, and that a body of nine hundred French were advancing against him. He therefore thought it prudent to fall back to a fort which he had previously thrown up; but before he had time to complete his defence, he was attacked by the French general, De Villiér, and, after mak-

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2. What did the governor of Virginia determine? Whom did he select? What was the distance? On his way what happened? When did he reach the fort?—3. After this, what was immediately commenced? Of this regiment, who was appointed colonel? Where did Washington march? What was he informed before he reached the place? What did he do?

ing a brave resistance, he was compelled to yield on honorable terms of capitulation.

4. In the year 1755, General Brad'dock arrived in Virginia with two regiments, and after being joined by the provincials, under Washington, his forces amounted to two thousand one hundred and fifty men. Braddock was brave, reckless, obstinate, and inexperienced in Indian warfare. Washington, who acted as his aide-de-camp, asked permission to go forward and scour the woods with the provincial troops under his command; but Braddock, ignoring this prudent advice, pushed forward incautiously, and when within a few miles of Fort Duquesne he fell into an ambuscade of French and Indians. The invisible enemy commenced a heavy discharge of musketry upon his unprotected troops. The van was forced back upon the main body, and the whole army thrown into disorder. A dreadful slaughter now ensued. Braddock did all that a brave general could do to encourage his men to stand the assault; but valor was unavailing. After an action of three hours, seven hundred of the English were left dead upon the field, and Braddock himself, after having three horses shot under him, fell mortally wounded. Washington had two horses killed under him, and four bullets passed through his coat, yet he escaped uninjured. The provincial troops under his command preserved their order, and covered the retreat of the regulars, who broke their ranks, and could not be rallied.

5. Three successive campaigns produced nothing but expense and disappointment to the British government. The lakes and the whole western and northern border were in possession of the ever active French and Indians. With an inferior force they had maintained a superiority, and even extended their encroachments. In 1756, a change was effected in the British ministry, and William Pitt (afterwards Lord Chatham) was raised to the head of the administration. From this moment affairs began to assume a new aspect. The active and enterprising genius of Pitt seemed to diffuse itself through every department of the state. He addressed a circular to the colonies in America, assuring them that an effectual force should be sent from England, and called on

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4. In 1755, who arrived? What is said of Braddock? What did Washington ask? What did Braddock do? What was his fate? What is said of Washington?—5. What did three campaigns produce? In 1756, what took place? What did he address?

them to furnish as large a force as their population would permit. The number of men brought into the field at the next campaign amounted to fifty thousand, of which twenty thousand were raised in the colonies.

6. The first expedition was directed against Louisburg, in Cape Breton, which, after an obstinate resistance, surrendered with a garrison consisting of nearly six thousand men. Ticondero'ga and Crown Point next fell into the hands of the English. Niagara was besieged, and, after a severe action, also surrendered. But a far more important and more dangerous enterprise remained yet to be accomplished. The city of Quebec, a place strongly fortified by nature and art, the capital of the French dominions in America, was protected by a garrison of ten thousand men, under the able and experienced General Montcalm'. The arduous duty of reducing the place was committed to the heroic General Wolfe.

7. Having landed his army, consisting of eight thousand men, on the island of Orleans, below Quebec, he made an unsuccessful attempt to reduce the city. Not discouraged by this failure, Wolfe conceived the design of ascending, during the night, a steep and craggy precipice, to a plateau on the north bank of the river called the Plains of Abraham. This enterprise he effected with incredible labor, before Montcalm had the slightest intimation of his design, and by sunrise the following morning his whole army was arrayed on the plains above. A bloody engagement followed, in which the French were entirely defeated, with a loss of fifteen hundred men, among whom were numbered four of their principal officers, who fell in the action. But while the French were called to mourn the loss of their great and fearless commander, Montcalm, the British were compelled to lament the death of the heroic Wolfe, who fell in the moment of victory. Having received a mortal wound, he was carried to the rear of the army, where he caused himself to be raised that he might view the engagement. Faint with the loss of blood, he had reclined his head upon the arm of an officer, when he was roused by the cry: "They fly, they fly!" "Who fly?" exclaimed the dying general. Being told that it was

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What was the number of men at the next campaign?—6. What was the first expedition? What places were taken? What is said of Quebec? To whom was the duty of reducing it committed?—7. What design did Wolfe conceive? What ensued? What was the loss of the French? What was the fate of Wolfe? What is related of him before his death?

the French, he replied, "I die contented," and immediately expired. The sentiments of Montcalm in the moments of death are equally remarkable. On being told by the surgeon that his wound was mortal, he asked: "How long have I yet to live?" "Ten or twelve hours at most," replied the surgeon. "The shorter the better," returned Montcalm; and he added, "at least I shall not see the English in Quebec." Finally, addressing himself to the next in command, he said: "To your care I commit the honor of France. As for me, I am going to pass my time with God, and prepare for death." The battle of the Plains of Abraham was followed by the reduction of the city, and subsequently by that of all Canada; so that of all the territories claimed by France in America, only St. Pierre and Miquelon, small islands south of Newfoundland, remained in her possession, A. D. 1763.

CHAPTER IX

THE OPPRESSIVE MEASURES THAT FINALLY LED TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

NEVER had the attachment of the colonies to the mother country been more strongly manifested than during the French war, which had terminated so advantageously to England. The colonists felt proud of their descent from, and connection with one of the most powerful nations of Europe. But the peculiar circumstances in which the early settlers had been placed, led them to study with more than usual care the principles of political liberty, and to view with a jealous eye every encroachment of power. What degree of authority the parent country might exercise over the colonies, had never been defined. In England, the doctrine prevailed, that Parliament had the power to bind them in all cases whatsoever; a principle which, in America, had been publicly denied.

2. The expenses attending the recent war had rendered it necessary to increase the usual taxes of the English nation; but the ministry, apprehensive of rendering themselves unpopular by too severely pressing on the resources of the people

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What is said of Montcalm? What followed the reduction of this city?

CHAPTER IX.—1. What is said of the attachment of the colonies? Of what were they proud? In England, what doctrine prevailed?—2. What did the expenses render necessary? What is said of the ministry?

at home, determined to raise a revenue from the colonies in America. In 1765, Grenville, the commissioner of the treasury, introduced the famous Stamp Act, by which all instruments in writing, such as law documents, deeds, leases, wills, etc., were to be null and void, unless on stamped paper, on which a duty was to be paid. The bill passed the House after a long and animated discussion. It was only briefly discussed by the Lords.

3. The news of this measure created the greatest sensation among the colonists. In vain did they remonstrate. The act went into execution during the following year. The assembly of Virginia was in session when the intelligence arrived; and a number of resolutions were immediately brought forward by the patriotic Patrick Henry in opposition to the act. Massachusetts also declared herself opposed to it, and in all the colonies a determined spirit of resistance to the oppressive measure was strongly manifested. When the news of the Stamp Act reached Boston, the bells were muffled and rung a funeral peal. The crown officers were treated with insult, and, in some instances, their houses were broken open or demolished. In the city of New York, the act was carried through the streets with a death's head affixed to it, bearing this inscription: "The folly of England, and the ruin of America."

4. A Colonial Congress met at New York, and published a declaration of their rights, insisting particularly on the exclusive right of taxing themselves, and loudly complaining of the Stamp Act. The merchants of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia entered into a combination, and passed a resolution not to import or sell British goods until the offensive measure should be repealed. So great and spirited was the opposition of the colonies, that the Stamp Act, through the exertions of the ministry of Lord Rockingham, was repealed in the spring of 1766; but the repeal was accompanied with a foolish and unjust declaration that the British Parliament had the power to enforce upon the colonies any measure it might think proper; and, in accordance with this principle, an act was passed during the following year, 1767, imposing

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In 1765, what was introduced? What was the nature of this act?—3. What did the news of this measure create? In the assembly of Virginia, what was done? And in Boston? In the city of New York?—4. What did the Colonial Congress publish? What did the merchants of Boston, etc., do? When was the Stamp Act repealed?

a duty on tea, paper, glass, and painters' colors. This act was followed by another most arbitrary declaration, that all offenders in Massachusetts should be sent to England for trial, and in order to carry these measures into effect, two British regiments were sent over and quartered in Boston.

5. The feelings of the citizens were highly exasperated to see themselves beset by an insolent soldiery, sent over with the design of frightening them into compliance with the arbitrary acts of the British Parliament. Frequent disputes occurred between them and the soldiers, and on the 5th of March, 1770, a collision took place between a detachment of troops under Captain Preston, and the inhabitants of Boston, which resulted in the death of three of the latter, while five more were dangerously wounded. Captain Preston and the soldiers were brought to trial and acquitted, except two, who were convicted of manslaughter.

6. Lord North succeeded the Duke of Grafton as prime minister of England, in 1770, when all the duties were repealed, with the exception of the one imposing three pence per pound on tea. Things continued in this state of partial irritation until the year 1773, when the British East India Company was authorized to export its tea to the colonies free of duty. The inhabitants of New York and Philadelphia prevented the landing of the tea ships sent to these cities, but the people of Boston showed their resentment in a more impressive manner. A party of men, disguised as Indians, boarded the vessels, and threw the tea, consisting of three hundred and forty-two chests, into the harbor. This was the celebrated Boston Tea Party.

7. Nothing could exceed the indignation of Parliament when the news of this transaction reached England. An act was immediately passed by which the port of Boston was closed, and the government and officers transferred to Salem, A. D. 1774.

In May of the same year, General Gage, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America, arrived in Boston; and was shortly followed by two regiments more, with artillery and military stores.

In 1767, what was passed? By what was this followed?—5. What frequently occurred? On the 5th of March, 1770, what happened?—6. By whom was the Duke of Grafton succeeded? What took place in 1773? How did the people of Boston show their resentment?—7. What act was immediately passed? In May of the same year, who arrived in Boston?

By these proceedings, the Americans very justly concluded that it was the object of the British government to reduce them to obedience by force of arms; that the hour of reconciliation had passed; that their rights could only be maintained by an appeal to force; therefore, without delay, they began to prepare themselves for the contest.

8. An agreement was entered into by many of the most distinguished men of Massachusetts, called a "Solemn League and Covenant," by which they determined to suspend all intercourse with Great Britain until their rights should be restored. A regular enlistment of soldiers was commenced, and five general officers were appointed. The General Court of Massachusetts resolved that a congress of the colonies should be called; accordingly, on the 5th of September, delegates from all the colonies, except Georgia, met at Philadelphia. This body is generally known as the first Continental Congress, of which Peyton Ran'dolph, of Virginia, was chosen president. It consisted of fifty-five members. They published a declaration of the colonies, agreed to suspend all intercourse with Great Britain, and drew up an address to the king, another to the people of England, and a third to the colonies.

9. When the proceedings of the Continental Congress were laid before the Parliament, an address was presented to the king, declaring that Massachusetts was in a state of rebellion, and requesting that effectual means might be taken to suppress it. Accordingly, during the winter and spring of 1775, the number of royal troops in Boston was increased to ten thousand, a force deemed sufficient for that purpose. In February, General Gage despatched a body of troops to Salem, to take possession of some pieces of cannon, but they were disappointed in their object. The cannon were removed through the precaution of the provincials, who had received intimation of Gage's design.

10. In April, General Gage sent another body of troops, under Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, to destroy the military stores which had been collected at Concord, about twenty

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By these proceedings, what did the Americans conclude?—8. What agreement was entered into? What was commenced? What did the court of Massachusetts resolve? By what name is this body known? Who was the first president? What did they do?—9. What was done when the proceedings of Congress were laid before Parliament? In February, what did General Gage do?—10. In April, what took place?

miles distant from Boston. On the morning of the 19th of April, as they passed through Lexington, they were met by a party of militia, to the number of about seventy, who had assembled on the green for the purpose of opposing their progress. Major Pitcairn, riding up, called out to them to disperse; but not being obeyed, discharged his pistol, and ordered his men to fire. Eight of the Americans were killed, and several wounded. Thus was shed the first blood in that memorable contest, which finally resulted in securing the liberty, and establishing the independence of the United States.

11. After this the royal troops proceeded to Concord, and destroyed some military stores collected in the town. The British commander then attempted to cut off the approach of the Americans from the neighborhood, by destroying or occupying the bridges. Accordingly, a small force was sent to take possession of a bridge over Concord river, but being attacked by the Americans, who were desirous of keeping open a communication with the town, a sharp action took place, which terminated in the retreat of the British, with a loss of several killed and wounded. Hastily burying their dead in the public square, the British troops commenced their march, or rather their retreat, towards Boston. In the meantime, the people of the neighborhood flew to arms, and attacked the flying troops on every side. An incessant fire was kept up from behind trees, walls, and rocks, until they reached Lexington, where they were joined by a reinforcement, which secured their retreat to Boston, after sustaining a loss of sixty-five killed, and one hundred and eighty wounded. The Americans lost fifty killed and thirty-four wounded.

12. From the first appearance of the approaching contest, the Americans were anxious that when an attack should be made, the British should be the aggressors. In this they were gratified by the affair at Lexington, which was now considered as the signal for hostilities. The forts, magazines, and arsenals within the limits of the colonies were instantly secured for the use of the Americans. Congress,

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On the 19th, by whom were they met? What did Major Pitcairn do? How many of the Americans were killed?—11. What did the British commander attempt to do? What took place at the bridge over Concord river? What did the British do? How many were killed on both sides?—12. For what were the Americans anxious?

on hearing what had taken place at Lexington, immediately passed a resolution for raising an army of thirty thousand men in New England; and in a short time a considerable force was collected in the vicinity of Boston. The first expedition was directed against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, which were taken by surprise. Towards the end of May, a considerable reinforcement of British troops arrived at Boston, under the command of Generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyn'e, officers of high reputation.

13. For the purpose of annoying, or, if possible, of driving the British from Boston, a detachment of one thousand men, under command of Colonel Prescott, was ordered to throw up a breastwork on Bunker Hill, but by some mistake they took possession of Breed's Hill, an eminence much nearer Boston. Moving silently to the spot on the evening of the 16th of June, they prosecuted their design with so much expedition, that by the return of day they had nearly completed an intrenchment of ten rods square. At the break of day, their operations being discovered, a brisk cannonade was commenced, from a vessel lying in the harbor, against the works of the Americans, without being able to retard their progress. During the morning, Colonel Prescott received a reinforcement of five hundred men. About noon, a detachment of two thousand men, under the command of General Howe, was sent to drive the Americans from their intrenchments. A severe engagement followed, during which the British were twice repulsed with dreadful slaughter; but from the failure of the ammunition of the Americans, they finally succeeded in carrying the fortifications, after sustaining a loss of one thousand and fifty-four in killed and wounded. The loss on the part of the Americans amounted to four hundred and fifty-three; and among the slain they had to number the much lamented and patriotic Major-General Warren, who had hastened as a volunteer to the field of battle. While the British were advancing to the attack, Charlestown was ordered to be set on fire, and in a few hours the whole town, consisting of four hundred houses, was laid in ashes.

What did Congress immediately pass? What was the first expedition? In May, what arrived in Boston?—13. For the purpose of driving the British from Boston, what was done? How did they prosecute their design? At noon, what took place? What followed? What was the loss of the British? Of the Americans? What city was set on fire?

14. The Congress, then in session at Philadelphia, resolved on immediate measures of defence. It began the organization of a continental army, selected George Washington, a member of its body from Virginia, as Commander-in-Chief, and made the appointment of subordinate officers under him. With much diffidence, General Washington accepted the appointment, but without delay entered immediately on the duties of his office, and by the 2d of July joined the army at Cambridge, near Boston.

15. With a view of guarding the frontiers, a plan was devised for the invasion of Canada, and, if possible, for reducing the country. In pursuance of this object, a body of troops, under Schuyler and Montgomery, was sent to that province; but the former, having returned to treat with the Indians, was prevented by sickness from again joining the army. The chief command, therefore, devolved upon Montgomery, who, having taken Fort Chamblee, St. John's, and the city of Montreal, which surrendered without resistance, pursued his victories to the very walls of Quebec. Colonel Benedict Arnold was sent with a reinforcement of one thousand men to join Montgomery, and after a fatiguing march through the wilderness, during which his troops were exposed to incredible suffering, he reached Quebec in November. After remaining before the city for some time, without the slightest prospect of being able to take it by a siege, they resolved to attempt it by an assault. Accordingly, on the last day of December, 1775, they made an attack upon the city in three separate divisions, which, however, proved unsuccessful, and fatal to the brave Montgomery, who fell in the act of scaling the walls.

16. Early in the following spring, the Americans being obliged to relinquish their design of reducing Canada,* evacuated the country. About this time the flourishing town

* Canada is one of the most important colonial possessions of Great Britain. In 1791, it was divided into two provinces—Upper Canada and Lower Canada, or Canada East and Canada West. These two sections were reunited in 1840. In 1867, the confederation of the British provinces of North America, known as the Dominion of Canada, was formed. It now consists of the provinces of (1) Quebec, formerly Lower Canada; (2) Ontario, formerly Upper Canada;

14. What did Congress resolve? Who was selected as commander-in-chief? When and where did he join the army?—15. What plan was devised? Who was sent to that province? What places did Montgomery take? By whom was he joined? What did they resolve? What was the result?

of Norfolk was wantonly burnt by order of Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia; and Falmouth, a town in the province of Maine, shared the same fate, being laid in ashes by order of the British admiral. In October, General Gage, having embarked for England, the command of the British forces devolved on Sir William Howe.

17. During the summer and autumn of 1775, the army, under General Washington, amounting in number to about fifteen thousand, remained inactive for want of suitable arms and ammunition; but early in the following spring, an effort was made to dislodge the British from Boston. On the night of the 4th of March, a battery was erected, with much secrecy and despatch, on Dorchester Heights, a situation that completely commanded the city. Unable to drive the Americans from their position, General Howe deemed it expedient to evacuate the town; and, on the 17th of March, embarked his troops for Halifax, and General Washington, on the same day, entered Boston in triumph, amidst the joyous acclamations of the inhabitants.

18. Early in the following summer, a small armament, under the command of Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops, under General Clinton, made an attack on Charleston, the capital of South Carolina; but after a violent assault upon the fort on Sullivan's Island, from which they were repulsed with considerable loss, the enterprise was abandoned. When the news of the battle of Bunker Hill reached England, it filled all minds with surprise and astonishment. Lord Chatham, Burke, and Fox endeavored, but in vain, to produce a change in the measures of the government. The ministry blindly persisted in their plans, and obtained an act of Parliament authorizing them to employ sixteen thousand mercenary troops from the Landgrave of Hesse and the Duke of

(3) Nova Scotia; (4) New Brunswick; (5) Manitoba; (6) British Columbia; (7) Prince Edward's Island; (8) the Northwest Territories. Thus nearly all British North America is included in the Dominion of Canada. The constitution of the Dominion is modelled on that of the mother country. The Parliament consists of an Upper House, styled the Senate, and a Lower House, called the House of Commons. The Queen is represented by a Governor-General.—M.

16. About this time, what town was burnt? In October, what happened?—17. During the summer of 1775, what is said of the army? On the 4th of March, what was done? On the 17th, what did General Howe do?—18. By whom was an attack made on Charleston? What is said of Chatham, Burke, and Fox? What did the ministry obtain?

Brunswick. All trade and intercourse with the colonies were prohibited, and their property on the high seas was declared forfeited to those who should capture it.

19. At the commencement of the controversy, the Americans had contended for only their rights as British subjects, but these hostile measures induced them to assume a loftier position. Seeing there was no alternative left, but that of absolute freedom or unconditional submission, they determined to sever entirely those ties that bound them to the mother country, and assert their independence. On the 7th of June, a motion was made in Congress by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, and seconded by John Adams, of Massachusetts, for declaring the colonies free and independent; and at the same time a committee, consisting of Jefferson, Adams, Franklin, Sherman, and Livingston, was appointed to prepare the Declaration of Independence, which was finally adopted, after a full discussion, by a vote almost unanimous, on the memorable 4th of July, 1776.*

* See the "Declaration of Independence," in Appendix A.

19. For what had the Americans contended? Seeing no alternative left, what did they determine? On the 7th of June, what was done in Congress? Who were appointed on the committee to prepare the Declaration?

SIGNING OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

BOOK XVII

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CHAPTER I

THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.—A. D. 1776 TO 1783.

DURING the second Continental Congress, the colonies which had united against the oppressive measures of Great Britain, received the appellation of the United Colonies, but in the Declaration of Independence they were styled the United States of America. From this period, then, begins the history of the United States.

The first important battle that took place after the Declaration of Independence was that of Long Island. In June, 1776, General Howe arrived off Sandy Hook, where he was shortly afterwards joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, with a great naval armament. General Washington, who knew that the favorite object of the British was to get possession of New York, had removed to that city with the greater part of his army.

2. On the 22d of August, the British landed on Long Island, and on the 27th a severe engagement took place, in which the Americans were defeated with a loss of nearly one thousand men. The American generals, Sullivan and Lord Stirling, fell into the hands of the British, whose loss was estimated at about four hundred men. During the engagement, General Washington had hastened from New York with reinforcements to the scene of action; but considering the inequality of numbers, it was thought expedient to evacuate the island, which was accordingly effected on the night of the 28th of the same month, with so much silence and order that the British army, although not more than a

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CHAPTER I.—1. Why should the history of the United States commence from this period? Where did the first battle take place after the Declaration?—2. When did the British land? What followed on the 27th of August? During the engagement, what did General Washington do?

quarter of a mile distant, had no intimation of their design until the Americans, with all their tents and baggage, were safely landed in the city of New York.

3. General Howe, who had been commissioned to settle the difficulties with the colonies, thought this a favorable opportunity to make proposals for an accommodation. He, therefore, despatched several letters to General Washington, but as they were directed to George Washington, Esq., the American commander-in-chief refused to receive them unless addressed to him in his proper character. Howe then sent General Sullivan, who had been taken prisoner in the battle of Long Island, with a message to Congress; and in a few days after this, Dr. Franklin, John Adams, and Edward Rut'ledge were commissioned to hold an interview with the British general. They were politely received, but no accommodations of peace being effected, they returned to Philadelphia.

4. In September, the city of New York was abandoned by the American army, and shortly afterwards occupied by the British. Washington, with a part of his army, had retired to White Plains, N. Y., where, on the 28th of October, a severe though indecisive action took place, with a loss of several hundred on both sides; and shortly afterwards, Fort Washington, on the Hudson, was reduced by General Howe, and its garrison, consisting of two thousand men, was captured. General Washington now retired to Newark; and thence passed through New Brunswick, Princeton, Trenton, and finally crossed to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, being so closely pursued by the British, under Lord Cornwal'lis, that the rear of the one army was often in sight of the van of the other.

5. The affairs of the Americans at this trying period bore the most gloomy appearance. The army under General Washington, reduced by the loss of men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, by the desertion of some, and the departure of others whose term of enlistment had expired, amounted to only about three thousand; and of this number, many were without shoes or clothing suitable to protect them from the biting cold of winter. To add to these disasters, General

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3. What did Howe think? What did he send to General Washington? Whom did he send with a message to Congress? What followed?—4. What was done in September? What took place at White Plains? What fort was shortly afterwards reduced? What course did Washington take?—5. By what was the army under Washington reduced?

Lee had been taken prisoner at Baskenridge, and Rhode Island fell into the hands of the British. Lee, indeed, could have been spared.

6. It was at this critical moment, when despair had filled almost every breast, that the expiring hopes of the nation were roused by a daring exploit of General Washington. On the night of the 25th of December he crossed the Delaware on the ice, surprised the enemy at Trenton, and took the whole body, consisting of about one thousand Hessian troops, under the command of Colonel Rahl, who was slain. He then proceeded to Princeton, and on the 3d of January, 1777, defeated a party of the British, who lost about one hundred men, and compelled the remainder, about three hundred in number, to surrender themselves prisoners. In this action the Americans lost General Mercer, of Virginia, a brave and experienced officer. During the latter part of the year 1776, Congress had manifested the greatest energy. Measures were adopted for increasing the army, and Dr. Franklin, Arthur Lee, and Silas Deane, commissioned to go to Europe to solicit the aid and alliance of foreign powers.

7. During the spring of 1777, Governor Tryon was sent to destroy stores at Danbury, in Connecticut. The design was executed and the town partly burnt. The British on their return were severely harassed by the Connecticut militia, under General Wooster, who was unfortunately killed on the occasion. It had been long the object of General Howe to get possession of Philadelphia. For this purpose he embarked his troops, amounting to about sixteen thousand men, at Staten Island, entered the Chesapeake bay, and landing near the head of Elk river, commenced his march towards that city. General Washington, perceiving his object, hastened to oppose his progress with a much inferior force. On the 11th of September, a battle was fought on the banks of the Brandywine, in which the Americans were defeated with considerable loss. In this battle two eminent foreigners served under the American flag—the Marquis de Lafayet'te, of France, and Count Pulas'ki, of Poland, the former of whom was wounded.

Where was Lee made prisoner?—6. On the 25th of December, what did General Washington do? Where did he then proceed? In this action, who was killed? Who were commissioned to go to Europe?—7. What was done in the spring of 1777? What was the object of Howe? What course did he take? On the 11th of September, what took place? In this battle, what distinguished foreigners served?

8. After this victory, the British general immediately directed his march to Philadelphia, and stationed the principal part of his army at Germantown, about seven miles from that city. On the 4th of October, General Washington attempted to surprise the detachment at Germantown, but was repulsed with a loss of twelve hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, while the loss of the enemy was about half that number. While these operations were carried on in the Middle States, more auspicious events were taking place in the north. General Burgoyn'e, who commanded the British army in that quarter, took possession of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans, under General St. Clair. But his progress was checked by the defeat of Colonel Baum, near Bennington, Vermont, by a body of militia, under General Stark.

9. Burgoyne having collected his forces, crossed the Hudson and encamped near Saratoga. General Gates, who had lately been appointed to the command of the American army in the north, advanced towards the enemy, and on the 19th of September an obstinate but undecisive engagement took place at Stillwater; and shortly after this another severe action occurred, in which the British were defeated and General Fraser killed. The American generals, Arnold and Lincoln, were wounded. General Burgoyne having made several ineffectual attempts to retreat, and finding his situation growing hourly more critical, called a council of war, in which it was resolved to surrender by capitulation. And thus, on the 17th of October, 1777, his whole army, amounting to nearly six thousand men, surrendered to General Gates as prisoners of war.

10. This event thrilled the heart of every true American, and inspired the new nation with ardor in the cause of freedom. The court of France, which had secretly wished success to the cause of the United States, was restrained from giving open countenance to their agents until after the surrender of Burgoyne. This event determined the course of France. A negotiation was immediately begun with the American commissioners, and on the 6th of February, 1778,

8. After this victory, where did the British proceed? On the 4th of October, what took place? What place did Burgoyne take? How was his progress checked?—9. Where did Burgoyne encamp? On the 19th of September, what took place? Finding it impossible to retreat, what was resolved? What was done on the 17th of October?—10. What is said of this event? Of the court of France? On the 6th of February, what was done?

WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

a treaty of alliance, of amity, and commerce, was concluded and signed at Paris. The British ministry, on receiving intelligence of the alliance between France and the United States, began to hold out terms of conciliation to the Americans, but the Congress was now too sanguine, in the hope of success, to listen to any terms short of an acknowledgment of their complete independence.

11. In the meantime, General Howe, who had returned to England, was succeeded in the chief command by Sir Henry Clinton. It was now determined to concentrate the British forces in New York; and Clinton, having evacuated Philadelphia in June, crossed the Delaware, and proceeded on his march to that city. But as he retired, he was closely pursued by the American army, under General Washington, and on the 28th of June a severe engagement took place at Monmouth Court House, in which the British were repulsed with heavy loss, and a signal victory must have been obtained, had General Lee obeyed his orders. For his misconduct on that day Lee was suspended from duty, and never afterwards joined the army.

12. In July, a French fleet of twelve ships of the line and four frigates, under the command of Count d'Estaing', arrived at the mouth of the Delaware; but towards the close of the season it sailed to the West Indies, without having performed any important service. The last enterprise of this year was an expedition against Georgia, and on the last day of December the British took possession of Savannah.

13. During the year 1779, the principal theatre of the war was changed from the northern to the southern provinces of the country. On the 15th of July, a detachment under General Wayne was sent to dislodge the British from Stony Point, on the Hudson. The expedition was conducted with so much courage and resolution, that the whole garrison, to the number of five hundred men, surrendered without the loss of a single person on either side. In October, General Lincoln and Count d'Estaing made an attack upon Savannah, but were repulsed with considerable loss. In this action the brave, patriotic Count Pulaski, of Poland, was mortally wounded.

What did the British ministry do?—11. By whom was Howe succeeded? What was determined? What did Clinton do? On the 28th of June, what took place? What is said of General Lee?—12. In July, what arrived? What was the last transaction of this year?—13. During the year 1779, where was the principal theatre of the war? What was done on the 15th of July? And in October? In this action, who was mortally wounded?

14. At the opening of the campaign of 1780, the British troops evacuated Rhode Island. An expedition, under Sir Henry Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, which was compelled to capitulate after a siege of six months, and the whole garrison, consisting of about two thousand five hundred men, together with all the adult male inhabitants, were surrendered as prisoners of war. Clinton, leaving four thousand troops under the command of Lord Cornwallis, returned to New York. For the purpose of subduing the interior of the province, a considerable force was sent to Camden, under Lord Rawdon. His troops, however, were greatly harassed by small parties of the Americans, under General Sumter and other distinguished officers.

15. General Gates, who had been appointed to the command of the southern army in the place of General Lincoln, arrived in South Carolina in the latter part of July, and having concentrated his forces, prepared to oppose the progress of the British. Lord Cornwallis hastened to join Lord Rawdon with reinforcements, and on the 16th of August a severe engagement took place between the two armies, in which General Gates was defeated, with the loss of upwards of seven hundred men. In this, Baron De Kalb, an eminent Prussian general, then in the American service, bravely maintained his position at the head of the regular troops of Maryland and Delaware, until, overpowered by numbers and almost surrounded, he was taken prisoner, and died on the following day of the wounds he received. In July, De Ternay, with a French fleet, carrying six thousand land forces under Count de Rochambeau', arrived at Rhode Island. This event gave universal joy to the Americans; but the fleet, leaving the land forces, shortly after returned to France.

16. This year is distinguished for the treachery of General Benedict Arnold. General Washington, being called to Connecticut on pressing business, left the important fortress of West Point under the command of Arnold, who had previously distinguished himself at the siege of Quebec, and subsequently received a severe wound at Saratoga. He afterwards commanded in Philadelphia, where his oppressive con-

14. What was undertaken by Clinton and Cornwallis? What was the result?—15. What did General Gates do? What took place on the 16th of August? In this battle, what is said of Baron De Kalb? In July, what arrived at Rhode Island?—16. For what is this year distinguished?

SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN.

duct rendered him subject to a trial by court-martial, by which he was sentenced to be reprimanded. He was a brave soldier, but a vicious, treacherous man. He determined to have revenge; and for this purpose he basely entered into a negotiation with Sir Henry Clinton, to deliver up West Point, with all its garrison, into the hands of the British.

17. The English agent, through whom the negotiation with Arnold was conducted, was the unfortunate Major Andre'. After having an interview with the traitor, Andre' was on his return to New York, with the papers in Arnold's own handwriting concealed in his boot. Near Tarrytown he was arrested and searched by three American militiamen, named Paulding, Van Wart, and Williams;* and thus the treacherous designs were fortunately discovered in season to prevent their execution. Andre' being convicted as a spy, his life was forfeited by the laws of war. He was accordingly condemned and executed. His youth and his many amiable qualities had endeared him to the officers of the British army, while his fate was deeply regretted by all. Arnold escaped to the English, and received as a reward of his treason an appointment to the office of brigadier-general in the British army.

18. The campaign of 1781 was opened by an expedition under Benedict Arnold,† who made a descent upon the coast of Virginia, and committed extensive depredations. After the defeat of Gates, General Greene was appointed to the army in the southern department. From this period affairs in that quarter began to wear a more favorable aspect. Colonel Tarleton, the British commander, was defeated by General Morgan, at the battle of Cowpens. The two armies, at length, under their respective commanders, met near Guilford Courthouse, in North Carolina, where one of the best contested battles fought during the whole war took place. The Americans were obliged to retire from the field, yet the British suffered so severe a loss that they were unable to pursue the victory.

* Congress awarded to each of them a silver medal and a life pension of $200.—M.

† After bearing arms against his country, this infamous traitor retired to England, where he was shunned and despised. He died at London, in obscurity, in 1801.—M.

Into what negotiation did he enter?—17. Who was the English agent? Relate the circumstances of Andre's capture. What was his fate? What became of Arnold?—18. How was the campaign of 1781 opened? Where and by whom was Tarleton defeated? Where did the two armies again meet? What was the result?

19. In September, General Greene obtained an important victory over the British, under Colonel Stuart, at Eutaw Springs, where General Marion particularly distinguished himself, and Colonel Washington, a relative of the commander-in-chief, was wounded and taken prisoner. After this battle, Lord Cornwallis, leaving South Carolina, marched into Virginia, and having collected his forces, fortified himself at Yorktown. General Washington, learning the position of Cornwallis, secretly left his camp at White Plains, crossed the Hudson with his army, and, by forced marches, passed rapidly through New Jersey and Pennsylvania, arriving at the head of Elk river, where he embarked on the Chesapeake for Yorktown.

20. In the meantime, Clinton, who was not aware of the departure of General Washington until it was too late to pursue him, sent a detachment of troops, under the traitor Arnold, against New London, in Connecticut, which was set on fire and burned to the ground. While Washington was on his way to Virginia, he received the cheering intelligence of the arrival of a French fleet, consisting of twenty-four ships of the line, under Count de Grasse, in the Chesapeake. A British fleet of nineteen vessels, under Admiral Graves, soon after appeared off the capes. A slight engagement took place between the two fleets, in which the French had the advantage, and remained in possession of the bay.

21. A body of French troops was landed, in order to cooperate with the Americans, under General Washington, who by this time had disembarked his forces and arrived at Yorktown. A close siege was now commenced, and carried on with so much vigor by the united forces of France and America, that Lord Cornwallis, on the 19th of October, 1781, was compelled to sign articles of capitulation, by which the British army, military stores, and shipping were surrendered to General Washington. The number of the British forces that surrendered on that occasion amounted to something over seven thousand, but many of them at the time were unfit for duty. When the news of this glorious event, which was con-

19. In September, what did Greene obtain? After this battle, where did Cornwallis fortify himself? What did General Washington do?—20. In the meantime, what was done by Clinton? While Washington was on his march to Virginia, what news did he receive? What fleet appeared off the capes? What took place?—21. What was now commenced and carried on? What was the number of forces that surrendered? At the news of this event, what did Congress do?

sidered as deciding the contest, was reported to Congress, that body immediately recommended that a day of public thanksgiving should be observed throughout the United States. Shortly after the surrender of Cornwallis, the British evacuated nearly all their posts in South Carolina and Georgia, and joined the main army in New York.

22. As no rational hope now remained of conquering America, Great Britain at length resolved to discontinue the prosecution of an insane war, which had already exhausted the nation, and reflected discredit upon its arms. Accordingly, on the 30th of November, provisional articles of peace were signed, in which the Independence of the United States was acknowledged; and on the 3d of September, 1783, there was concluded, at Versailles, France, by Franklin, Adams, Jay, and Laurens, on the part of America, and Mr. Oswald, on the part of Great Britain, a definitive treaty of peace, by which the thirteen united colonies were admitted to be "free, sovereign, and independent states."

Thus ended the long and eventful war of the Revolution, which cost Great Britain, besides the loss of her colonies, the sum of $572,500,000, and the lives of fifty thousand of her subjects. It was a contest, however, which produced for America, as the happy reward of her trials, her sufferings, and the blood of her patriots, the establishment of her freedom and independence.

23. Peace being thus restored, the first step of Congress was to disband the army. But here a serious difficulty arose respecting the payment of the arrears of the officers and privates, many of whom had not received for five years the smallest compensation. The most serious consequences were about to ensue, when the storm, which seemed ready to plunge the young republic into all the horrors of civil war, was happily quelled by the prudence and energy of General Washington. Congress having made arrangements for the payment of the soldiers, fixed upon the 3d of November, 1783, for disbanding the army.

24. On the day previous, Washington issued a farewell address, bidding an affectionate adieu to the soldiers who had bravely fought and bled by his side. After taking leave of

22. What did Great Britain at length resolve? What took place on the 30th of November? And finally on the 3d of September, 1783? What did the contest cost Great Britain?—23. What now was the first step of Congress? What difficulty arose? How was it quelled? —24. On the day previous, what did Washington do?

the army, he was called to the still more painful duty of separation from officers endeared to him by the mutual dangers and sufferings they had endured. After this, he immediately repaired to Annapolis, where Congress was then in session, resigned his military commission, and declared that he was no longer invested with any public character. Having thus given back the almost unlimited power he possessed, to that source from whence he received it, he retired to his estate at Mount Vernon, and again devoted himself to the peaceful pursuits of agriculture, carrying to his retirement the gratitude of his country and the applause and admiration of the world.

CHAPTER II

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, AND WASHINGTON'S AND ADAMS' ADMINISTRATIONS.—A. D. 1787 TO 1801.

AT the close of the war of the Revolution, when the United States were released from the presence of danger, the government, under the Articles of Confederation, was found to be weak, and wholly insufficient for the public exigencies. The authority of Congress was but little respected. A large public debt had been contracted, and no provisions had been made for paying the principal or the interest. The necessity, therefore, of a more efficient and general system of government was extensively felt; and, in accordance with a proposition of the Legislature of Virginia, commissioners from five states met in 1786, at Annapolis, for the purpose of entering into certain commercial regulations. But after some deliberation they determined to adjourn, with a proposal to all the other states to appoint delegates to meet at Philadelphia, for the purpose of digesting a form of government equal to the wants of the Union.

2. In accordance with this proposition, delegates from every state, except Rhode Island, assembled at Philadelphia in the month of May, 1787. On the motion of Robert Morris, of Pennsylvania, General Washington, one of the delegates from Virginia, was unanimously elected president of the convention.

After this, where did he repair? Where did he retire?

CHAPTER II.—1. At the close of the war, what was the government found to be? What is said of Congress? What proposition was made in the Legislature of Virginia? What did they determine? —2. Agreeably to this, what was done? Who was elected president?

On taking the chair, Washington thanked the members of the convention for the honor they had conferred upon him, reminded them of the novelty of the scene of business in which he was about to act, lamented his want of better qualifications, and claimed the indulgence of the house for any involuntary errors which his inexperience might occasion. On the 29th of May, the scheme of a federal government, differing in many particulars from the present Constitution, was laid before the house by Governor Randolph, of Virginia. The convention then proceeded to discuss each clause separately, during which various opinions were advanced by the different delegates, and frequently animated discussions followed.

3. On the subject of salaries to the executive branch of the government, Mr. Wilson, of Pennsylvania, who was opposed to the measure, said: "Sir, there are two passions which have a powerful influence on the affairs of men. These are ambition and avarice—the love of power, and the love of money. Separately, each of these has great force in prompting men to action; but when united in view of the same object, they have, in many minds, the most violent effects. Place before the eyes of such men a post of honor, and at the same time that of profit, and they will move heaven and earth to obtain it. * * * And of what kind are the men that will strive for this profitable preëminence, through all the bustle of cabal, the heat of contention, the mutual abuse of parties, tearing to pieces the best of characters? It will not be the wise and moderate, the lovers of peace and good order; the men fittest for trust. It will be the bold and violent, men of strong passions and indefatigable activity in selfish pursuits."

4. On the morning of the 17th of September, after the last reading of the Constitution, Doctor Franklin arose with a speech in his hand, which he had reduced to writing for his own convenience, and which was as follows:

"Mr. President—I confess that there are several parts of this Constitution which I do not at present approve, but I am not sure that I shall never approve them. For having lived long, I have experienced many instances of being obliged, by better information, or fuller consideration, to change my opinions, even on important subjects, which I

On taking his seat, what did he say? On the 29th of May, what was done?—3. On the subject of salaries, what did Mr. Wilson observe?—4. On the morning of the 17th of September, what was done by Doctor Franklin?

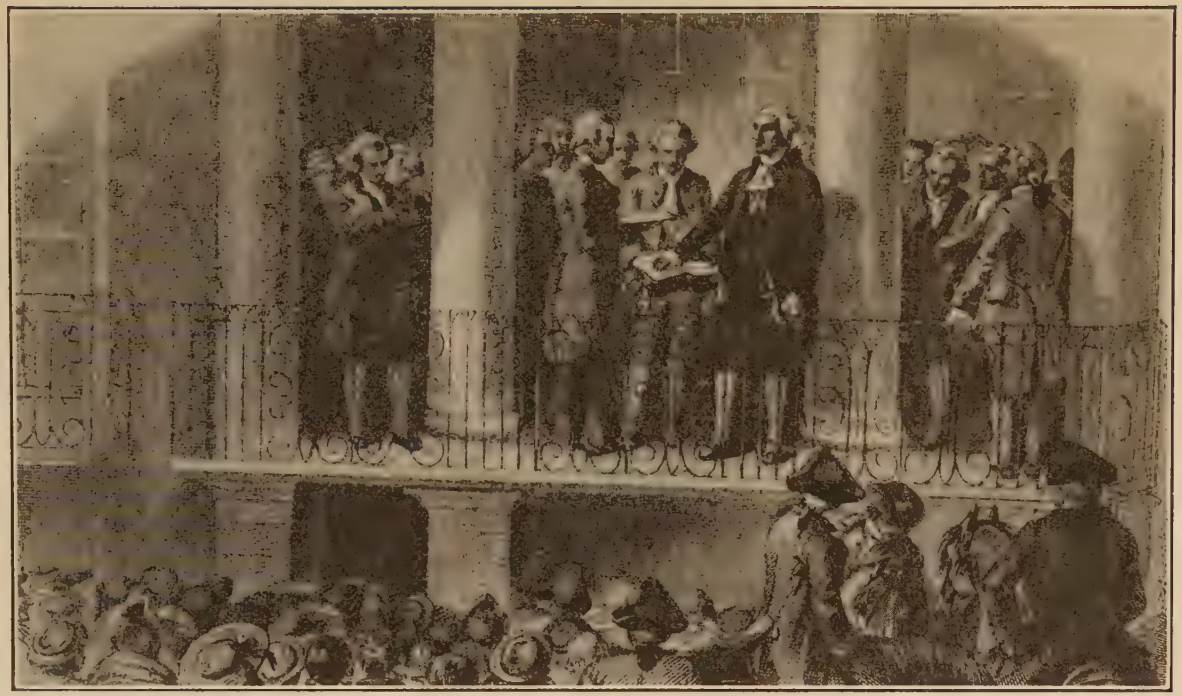
once thought right, but found to be otherwise. It is, therefore, that the older I grow, the more apt I am to doubt my own judgment, and to pay more respect to the judgment of others. In these sentiments, sir, I agree to this Constitution with all its faults, if they are such, because I think a general government necessary for us, and there is no form of government but what may prove a blessing to the people if well administered. Thus I consent, sir, to this Constitution, because I expect no better, and because I am not sure that it is not the best. The opinions I have had of its errors, I sacrifice to the public good. I have never whispered them abroad; within these walls they were born, here they shall die. I hope, therefore, that for our own sakes, as a part of the people, and for the sake of posterity, we shall act heartily and unanimously in recommending this Constitution, if approved by Congress, wherever our influence may extend, and turn our future thoughts and endeavors to the means of having it well administered." The Constitution was then signed by the delegates present, with the exception of Randolph, Mason, and Gerry, who declined giving it the sanction of their names.* Others had left the convention before the instrument was complete.

5. After four month's deliberation, the Federal Constitution, being thus almost unanimously agreed to by the members of the convention, was presented to Congress, and by that body transmitted to the several states for their consideration, and being at length accepted and ratified by eleven of the thirteen states of the Union, it became the Constitution of the United States, A. D. 1788. North Carolina and Rhode Island, the two states which at first dissented from it, afterwards adopted it; the former in 1789, and the latter in 1790.

6. By the Constitution, all legislative powers are vested in a Congress of the United States, consisting of a Senate, and a House of Representatives. In accordance with the Articles of the Constitution, the several states immediately elected their representatives to Congress. By the unanimous vote of

* See the Constitution of the United States, with all the recent Amendments, and the names of the original Delegates from each state, in Appendix B.

Who refused to sign the Constitution?—5. After four months' deliberation, what was done? When did it become the Constitution, etc.? What States rejected it, and when did they adopt it?—6. By the Constitution, where is a legislative power invested? Who was chosen the first President?



INAUGURATION OF WASHINGTON.
(April 30, 1789.)

the electors, General Washington was chosen first President. When the appointment was officially announced to him, the illustrious man yielded to the unanimous call of his country, and, bidding adieu to his peaceful retirement at Mount Vernon, he proceeded without delay to New York, where the Congress was then assembled. His progress was marked by every demonstration of gratitude and respect. Triumphal arches were erected to commemorate his achievements. He was hailed as the Father of His Country. The aged invoked a thousand benedictions upon him as he passed; and the young expressed their hope, that as he had defended the injured rights of their parents, he would not refuse his protection to their children.

7. On the 30th of April, he was inaugurated President of the United States, in the City Hall of New York, the oath of office being administered by Livingston, Chancellor of the State of New York. When Washington retired to the Senate Chamber, he addressed both houses in an impressive speech, reminding them that no truth was more thoroughly established than that there existed an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness; between duty and advantage; between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous people, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and happiness; and that the propitious smiles of an overruling Providence could never be expected on a nation regardless of the fundamental rules of order and right, which Heaven itself had ordained.

8. John Adams, of Massachusetts, who had borne a distinguished part in the Revolution, was elected Vice-President. The other officers, at the first organization of the government, were Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; Henry Knox, Secretary of War; Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General. John Jay became Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court. The first event of importance that distinguished the administration of Washington, was an expensive war with the Indians in northern Ohio, who obtained victories over Generals Harmer and St. Clair; but General Wayne, who was appointed to the command of the army in that section of the country,

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Where did he proceed? What is said of his progress to that city? —7. What took place on the 30th of April? When retired, how did he address the houses? Of what did he remind them, etc.?—8. Who was the first Vice-President? Who were the principal officers? What first distinguished the administration of Washington?

brought the struggle to a successful termination, and compelled the savages to conclude a treaty of peace at Greenville, in 1795.

9. The replenishing of the treasury was the first object that called for legislative attention. For this purpose, duties were laid on imported merchandise, and a reasonable taxation imposed on the tonnage of vessels. In 1790, Hamilton brought forward a bill for the formation of a national bank. On this subject the cabinet was divided. Jefferson and Randolph considered the bill as decidedly unconstitutional. Hamilton and others, with equal decision, maintained the contrary opinion. But after a protracted debate, a bill for establishing such a bank passed both branches of the legislature, and received the signature of the President. The bank was chartered for twenty years, with a capital of ten millions, in shares of four hundred dollars each. This measure seemed to increase the disaffection of many toward the Executive, and gave rise to the two parties into which we find the political community divided at the present time. The supporters of Hamilton and the National Bank were styled Federalists, while Jefferson and those who opposed it were called Democrats, or Republicans.

10. During the second term of Washington's administration, the United States were partially involved in difficulties growing out of the convulsions of Europe. The French Revolution had commenced, and that nation made certain demands on this country for assistance, while the feelings of the people were warmly enlisted on the side of France, and would have urged the nation into hostilities with England. The President, however, determined on a course of neutrality, and thus happily preserved the peace of the nation, although his policy met with much opposition. At the expiration of his second term, Washington, having previously declined a reëlection, in a valedictory address to the people, replete with maxims of the soundest policy, and breathing the warmest sentiments of affection for his country, retired again to his residence at Mount Vernon, and was succeeded in office by John Adams, while Thomas Jefferson was chosen Vice-President.

9. What duties were laid? In 1790, what did Hamilton do? What did Jefferson and Randolph consider? For how long was the bank chartered? To what did this measure give rise?—10. In what was the United States partially involved? What course did the President pursue? At the expiration of his second term, what did Washington do? By whom was he succeeded?

11. During Adams' administration, the menacing tone and hostile attitude of the French Directory towards the United States caused the American government to adopt measures of defence and retaliation. The navy was increased, and a provisional army raised, of which General Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief. Authority was given for the capturing of French armed vessels. This was followed by the taking of the French frigate L'Insurgente, after a severe action, by the American frigate Constellation. These decisive measures on the part of the United States induced the French government to accede to an amicable adjustment of the dispute. Our republic, at this period, was destined to experience a severe loss by the death of General Washington. On the 14th of December, 1799, he received a slight sprinkle of rain, and was seized in a few hours afterwards with an inflammation of the throat, attended by a fever. The illustrious man, who was declared to be "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," died on the following day at his residence, at Mount Vernon, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.*

CHAPTER III

FOREIGN RELATIONS, AND THE ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON.—A. D. 1801-1809.

FOR several years the country had been much agitated by the conflicting parties, which differed materially from each other in regard to the foreign relations of this republic, and on various subjects of domestic policy. A commercial treaty with Great Britain, negotiated by Mr. Jay, in 1794, was severely censured by the Democrats, who accused the Federalists of an undue partiality for England, and were accused, in turn, of a similar conduct towards France. Many of the measures of Mr. Adams' administration, both in relation to the foreign and domestic policy, were highly un-

* See "Short Biographies of Eminent Personages."

11. During Mr. Adams' administration, what was done? What authority was given? What was the effect of these measures? When and where did General Washington die?

CHAPTER III.—1. For several years, what had agitated the country? What was censured by the Republicans? What is said of many of the measures of Mr. Adams?

popular. The measures which excited the most disaffection, were those of raising a standing army, imposing a direct tax, and enacting the "Alien and Sedition Laws." A change having taken place in the administration of the public affairs, the Democratic party, having gained the ascendency, elevated Mr. Jefferson to the Presidential chair, at the expiration of Mr. Adams' first term.

2. In 1801, when Mr. Jefferson was raised to the Presidency, harmony subsisted between the United States and the great European powers. A new scene of vexation arose, and eventually a war succeeded, growing out of the piracies of the Barbary States. After several disputes were settled with Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, the Bashaw of Tripoli demanded certain tributes, which the United States refused to pay. The refusal was immediately followed by the capture of several American vessels. In 1802, Commodore Dale, with three frigates and a sloop of war, was sent into the Mediterranean, in order to protect American commerce. In the following year the Philadelphia, under the command of Captain Bainbridge, ran upon a rock about five miles from Tripoli, and, being assailed on all sides, and deprived of every means of assistance, was compelled to strike her colors. Her officers and men were made prisoners by the Tripolitans. The war finally terminated by a treaty in 1805.

3. The other most striking events in the administration of Mr. Jefferson, were the purchase of Louisiana from the French, in 1803, for the sum of fifteen millions of dollars, two millions and a half of which were to be retained by the United States as a compensation for illegal captures made by the French. Aaron Burr was tried for attempting to overthrow the government, but he was finally acquitted. It was during this administration that the expedition of Lewis and Clark, who explored the Missouri river, and contiguous countries, crossed the Rocky Mountains, reached the head waters of the Columbia, and descended that river to the Pacific Ocean.

In 1809 Jefferson's second term of office expired, and, being desirous of conforming to the example of General

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What acts excited disaffection? Who was elevated to the Presidential chair?—2. What eventually succeeded? What was demanded by Tripoli? By what was this followed? In 1802, what took place? And in the following year? When was the war terminated?—3. What were the other events of Mr. Jefferson's administration? In 1809, what took place?

Washington, he declined a reëlection. He was succeeded by James Madison, who had been a leading man in the late administration, and who pursued a similar course of policy.

CHAPTER IV

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION AND THE THREE YEARS' WAR.—A. D. 1809-1817.

DURING the wars that had for some time convulsed the continent of Europe, the United States endeavored to observe neutrality towards the belligerent powers, and peaceably to maintain a commercial intercourse with them. In the month of May, 1806, the British government declared all the ports and rivers, from the Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, to be in a state of blockade, and that all neutral vessels trading with these ports should be seized and condemned. In November following, the Emperor of France issued his Berlin Decree, prohibiting all intercourse with the British Islands. This decree of Napoleon was followed by the Orders of the British Council, by which all neutral vessels trading with France were compelled to stop at a British port and pay a duty. In consequence of this, the Emperor issued his Milan Decree, by which all vessels submitting to the British search, or consenting to pay any pecuniary exactions whatever, were confiscated.

2. About this time, at the recommendation of Mr. Jefferson, Congress laid an embargo on all the shipping of the United States; but the embargo was removed in the March of 1809, after it had remained in force more than a year, and non-intercourse with France and England was substituted. While the trade of the United States was thus restricted and harassed by the belligerent powers of Europe, another species of injury and insult arose. This was the custom practised by Great Britain of searching American vessels on the high seas, and impressing from them such seamen as were supposed to be British deserters. The custom was subject to

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By whom was he succeeded?

CHAPTER IV.—1. During the wars of Europe, what had the United States endeavored? In 1806, what did the British government do? In November following, what was done? By what was this followed? What did Bonaparte issue?—2. At this time, what was laid? But in 1809 what took place? What other species of injury and insult arose?

great abuse, from the difficulty of distinguishing between American and British seamen; but there was, moreover, strong reason to believe that the British officers were not always anxious to make the distinction, and that, in many instances, American citizens were compelled to serve in the British navy. From March 11, 1803, till September 30, 1810, there were four thousand five hundred and seventy-nine impressments.

3. Hitherto, this custom had been confined to private vessels, but in 1807, it was stated that four seamen, who had deserted from the British service, had entered on board the Chesapeake, an American frigate, carrying thirty-six guns, under command of Commodore Barron. Captain Humphreys, commanding the Leopard, an English frigate of fifty guns, in compliance with an order from Admiral Burkley, followed the Chesapeake beyond the waters of the United States, and after demanding the deserters, fired a broadside upon the American frigate, by which four men were killed and sixteen wounded. The Chesapeake immediately struck her colors, and the four seamen were given up, although there were strong reasons for believing that three of the number were native Americans. Commodore Barron, for neglect of duty, was suspended from the service for five years.

4. This outrage produced general indignation throughout the country. The British government disavowed the orders of Admiral Burkley, and removed him from that station; but shortly afterwards appointed him to another of more importance. In 1809, James Madison succeeded Mr. Jefferson in the office of President. Madison, who had been a leading man in the late administration, pursued a course of policy similar to that of his predecessor. In April, arrangements were made with Mr. Erskine, the British minister, by which the American government again renewed the trade with England; but these arrangements were subsequently disavowed by the British cabinet. In the succeeding negotiations, Mr. Jackson having made use of some offensive language, Mr. Madison declined having any further correspondence with him. In this state of things, an unfortunate encounter took place between the President, an American

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To what was custom subject?—3. In 1807, what was stated? What did Captain Humphreys do? What did the Chesapeake do? What is said of Commodore Barron?—4. What is said of the British government? Who succeeded Mr. Jefferson? In April, what was done? What is said of Mr. Jackson? In this state of things?

vessel, and the Little Belt, an English sloop of war, which tended to increase the unfriendly feelings which had for some time existed between the two powers.

5. The prospect of an amicable adjustment of the difficulties between the United States and Great Britain having been despaired of, the President, on the 1st of June, 1812, sent a message to Congress strongly recommending to that body a declaration of war. The principal grounds for this measure, as stated in the message, were the impressments of American seamen by the British; the blockading the ports of their enemies, and suspicions that the Indians had been instigated to acts of hostility by the British agents. The bill for declaring war passed the House of Representatives by a majority of thirty votes; in the Senate it passed by nineteen to thirteen, and on the 18th of June, the day after it passed the Senate, it was signed by the President.

6. The minority in Congress opposed the declaration of war on the ground that it was unnecessary and impolitic; and, therefore, they protested against the measure. A considerable portion of the people supported the views of the minority. The war, in consequence, was prosecuted with much less vigor and energy than it might, had there been more unanimity in its favor. The first military operation after the declaration of war, was the invasion of Canada by General Hull, on the 12th of July, at the head of two thousand men, but on the 16th of August he disgracefully surrendered his whole army into the hands of the British. Hull was subsequently tried and found guilty of cowardice and neglect of duty, and was sentenced to be shot; but in consideration of his age and Revolutionary services, he was recommended to mercy, and the punishment of death was not enforced by the President.

7. A second invasion of Canada was attempted by General Van Rensselaer, who crossed the Niagara river in November with about one thousand men, and made an attack upon the British at Queenstown. After a severe action, the enemy was driven from the field; but, being strongly reinforced, they returned to the attack, and, owing to the fact of the

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5. In 1812, what did the President do? What were the grounds for this measure? By what majority did the bill pass the House? And in the Senate?—6. What is said of the minority in Congress? What was the first military operation? But on the 16th of August, what did he do? What sentence was pronounced on Hull?—7. By whom was a second invasion of Canada attempted?

militia positively refusing to obey the orders of their general, the Americans were defeated, and part of their army made prisoners of war.

On the 19th of August, the American frigate Constitution, commanded by Captain Hull, captured the British frigate Guerriere, after an action of thirty minutes. The loss of the Guerriere was fifteen killed and sixty-four wounded; that of the Constitution, seven killed and seven wounded. In October the frigate United States, commanded by Captain Decatur, took the British frigate Macedonia, and in the following month, the British sloop Frolic was captured by the Wasp, commanded by Captain Jones; but the Wasp was shortly afterwards taken by a British seventy-four. In December the Constitution, then under the command of Captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate Java.

8. The campaign of 1813 was attended with varied success. Towards the end of January a detachment of about eight hundred men, under General Winchester, was surprised and defeated by the British and Indians, under General Proctor, at Frenchtown, on the Raisin; and the greater part of those who surrendered to the enemy, amounting to about five hundred, were inhumanly massacred by the Indians. In April, York—now Toronto—the capital of Upper Canada, was taken by a detachment of Americans, under General Pike, who was killed by the explosion of a magazine. The British lost on that occasion about seven hundred men in killed, wounded, and captured. In May an attack was made on Sackett's Harbor by the British, under Sir George Prevost, but they were repulsed with considerable loss by the Americans under General Brown. About the same time the Americans took Fort George; but the progress of their victories suffered a momentary check by the capture of a considerable force under Generals Chandler and Winder, who were surprised by the British, under General Vincent.

9. But the most brilliant achievement of this year was Perry's victory on Lake Erie, which took place on the 10th of September. The British fleet consisted of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns; that of the Americans, of nine,

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On the 19th of August, what took place? What was the loss on each side? What captures were afterwards made?—8. Towards the end of January, what took place? In April? And in May? What fort did the Americans take? By what was their progress checked?—9. What was the most brilliant achievement of this year? What was the number of vessels in each fleet?

with fifty-six guns. For some time the contest appeared doubtful. The flagship of the Americans, at the beginning of the action, suffered severely, and being in a sinking condition, Perry descended into an open boat, and passing through a shower of balls, transported his flag to another vessel. After a tremendous conflict of three hours, victory declared in favor of the Americans, who reduced the British fleet to almost a total wreck. After this victory, General Harrison embarked his forces, and landed on the Canada shore, and on the 5th of October defeated the British, at the battle of the Thames, under General Proctor. In this battle the celebrated Indian Chief, Tecumseh, was killed by Colonel Johnson.

10. Little more was done this year towards the conquest of Canada. General Wilkinson made an attack on Williamsburg, but was repulsed with considerable loss. The British fleet, under Admiral Cockburn, committed various depredations in the South. The English, however, were more fortunate on the ocean during this year than they had been previously. In February, the Hornet, commanded by Captain Lawrence, captured the Peacock, a British sloop of war. In the course of the summer, Captain Lawrence was appointed to the command of the Chesapeake, which was captured by the Shannon, commanded by Captain Broke.

11. The campaign of 1814 was distinguished by several important actions on the frontiers. On the 12th of July, the Americans, under General Brown, took Fort Erie, and shortly afterwards defeated the British under General Drummond, after an obstinate engagement, at Chippewa; and on the 25th of the same month, Generals Brown and Scott, at the well-contested battle of Bridgewater, defeated the British, commanded by Generals Drummond and Rial. The loss of the enemy was nine hundred men, in killed, wounded, and prisoners. In September, a combined attack was made on Plattsburg by a British squadron, carrying ninety-five guns and one thousand and fifty men, commanded by Commodore Downie, and a land force under Sir George Prevost. But the naval force was totally destroyed by the American fleet,

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Describe the battle. After this, what was done by Gen. Harrison? In this battle, who was killed?—10. Where did Gen. Wilkinson make an attack? What is said of the British fleet? In February, what took place? And in the course of the summer?—11. For what was the campaign of this year distinguished? On the 12th of July, what was done? And on the 25th? And in September?

commanded by Commodore Macdonough. During the engagement of the fleets, the British were effectually repulsed in their attack on the forts of Plattsburg by the Americans under General Macomb. The whole loss of the British on this occasion amounted to two thousand five hundred men, while the total loss of the Americans, on land and water, did not exceed two hundred and thirty-one.

12. In the month of August, a British fleet of sixty sail, under Admiral Cochrane, entered the Chesapeake, and landed a force of six thousand men, commanded by General Ross, on the banks of the Patuxent, about forty miles from Washington. The British general immediately commenced his march towards the capital, but at Bladensburg he met with a momentary repulse. At this point the Americans, under General Winder, had assembled to oppose his progress, and a slight engagement followed. At the commencement of the action, however, the American militia fled, leaving Commodore Barney, with a few eighteen-pounders, and about four hundred marines, to sustain the whole weight of the conflict. Barney was at length wounded and taken prisoner. After this the British hastened to Washington, which they entered the same evening, burnt the capitol, entered the President's house, and injured other public buildings, and retired without molestation.

13. About a fortnight after this event, a combined attack was made on the city of Baltimore by the British fleet of fifty sail, under Admiral Cochrane, and a land force of seven thousand men, under the command of General Ross. On the morning of the 12th of September, they effected a landing at North Point, about fourteen miles below the city. General Stricker was detached with about three thousand five hundred men, chiefly militia, to oppose their advance. General Ross, having preceded his army with a small reconnoitering party, was shot through the breast by one of the American riflemen, and falling into the arms of his aide-de-camp, he expired in a few minutes. The command then devolved upon Colonel Brook, who led on the attack. After maintaining his position for an hour and a half against a great

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What was the loss on both sides?—12. In the month of August, what was done? What took place at Bladensburg? What was done by the militia? What is said of Barney? What places did they burn?—13. On what city was an attack made? On the 12th of September, what was done? What was the fate of Gen. Ross?

superiority of numbers, General Stricker drew off his men, and retired to Worthington Mills, about half a mile in advance of the main body. In the meantime a furious assault was made upon Fort McHenry, by a discharge of bombs and rockets from the British squadron. But after the bombardment had continued for twenty-five hours, the attempt was abandoned, and the fleet having taken on board the forces under Colonel Brook, moved down the bay.

14. Up to this period the British had discovered no disposition to treat with the commissioners of the United States. The intelligence, however, of the defeat of their army at Plattsburg gave a new turn to the negotiation; and a treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December, 1814.

While the negotiation was in progress, a large armament had been despatched, under the command of Sir Edward Pak'enham, for the purpose of making an attack upon the city of New Orleans. Fortunately for the city, which was in a very bad state of defence, General Jackson, the commander-in-chief of the forces in the southern district, arrived there on the 2d of December from Mobile. His presence was immediately felt by the confidence which it inspired, and by the unanimity with which the people seconded his prompt arrangements.

15. The British, after enduring incredible fatigue and difficulties, at length succeeded in reaching the main entrenchment of the Americans, which had been thrown up for the defence of the city. This they determined to take by an assault. Accordingly, on the 8th of January, 1815, they advanced to the attack, but were repulsed with immense slaughter by the Americans under General Jackson. In this memorable engagement the British lost seven hundred killed, and fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred prisoners. Generals Pak'enham and Gibbs were mortally wounded. The loss on the part of the Americans is said to have amounted to only seven killed and six wounded. This was the last important event of the war. The news of the treaty of peace, which arrived shortly after, put an end to further hostilities.

16. In the treaty of Ghent, no allusion is made to the

What did Gen. Stricker do? In the meantime, what assault was made?—14. When and where was the treaty of peace signed? While this was in progress, what city was attacked? What was fortunate for the city?—15. What is said of the British? What took place on the 8th of January? What was the loss on both sides?—16. What is said of the treaty of Ghent?

cause of the war. "Security against future aggression," as Grimshaw observes, "rests on a much firmer basis than the provisions of the most solemn treaty. Great Britain has been taught to appreciate the strength of the Republic. She will read in the history of the late struggle, the most convincing arguments against the invasion of neutral rights."

CHAPTER V

ADMINISTRATIONS OF MONROE, ADAMS, JACKSON, VAN BUREN, HARRISON, AND TYLER.

MADISON having filled the office of President for two successive terms, was succeeded, in 1817, by James Monroe. During the administration of Monroe, Florida was ceded to the United States by Spain, and erected into a territorial government in 1822. Mr. Monroe was succeeded in 1825 by John Quincy Adams, whose administration of four years was not marked by any events of great importance. This year was rendered memorable for the visit of General Lafayette to the United States. Before his departure for France, Congress voted the illustrious Frenchman the sum of two hundred thousand dollars and a township of land, as a remuneration for his services during the Revolutionary War, and as a lasting testimony of their gratitude. On the 4th of July, 1826, while the nation was celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of its independence, John Adams died at Quincy, in Massachusetts, in the ninety-first year of his age, and on the same day, Thomas Jefferson expired at Monticello, in Virginia, having completed his eighty-third year.

2. In 1829, General Andrew Jackson succeeded Mr. Adams as President of the United States, and in his first message to Congress he called the attention of that body to the Bank of the United States, the charter of which was about to expire. In the spring of 1832, a bill passed both houses for rechartering the bank, with some new modifications and restric-

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What does Grimshaw observe?

CHAPTER V.—1. By whom was Madison succeeded? Who succeeded in 1825? For what is this year rendered memorable? When and where did Adams and Jefferson die?—2. In 1829, what took place? To what did he call the attention of Congress? In 1832, what passed?

tions. The bill, however, was vetoed by the President, who, in his message returning the bill, declared the bank to be, in his opinion, inexpedient and unconstitutional, and announced his firm determination never to sanction, by his approval, the continuance of that institution, or the reëstablishment of any other on similar principles.

3. On the 14th of November, 1832, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, the last of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, passed from this earth. He was a Catholic. His life was honored, and his end was happy.*

4. In 1837, General Jackson was succeeded in the Presidency by Martin Van Buren, who held the office for four years. His administration was particularly distinguished by a treaty with the Sioux Indians, and also a treaty with the Winnebagoes, by which they agreed to relinquish all their land east of the Mississippi; in consideration of which, the United States government agreed to pay them the sum of $2,500,000.

5. On the 4th of March, 1841, General William Henry Harrison was inaugurated President of the United States, but died on the 4th of the following April. In consequence of his decease, the Vice-President, John Tyler, was inaugurated in his place, according to a provision of the Constitution.

During the early part of the administration of Mr. Tyler, a domestic difficulty occurred in Rhode Island. An attempt was made to abolish the ancient charter, by which the State was governed, and also to adopt a constitution. The discontented party accordingly framed a constitution, elected a legislature, and chose Thomas W. Dorr as Governor. The attempt, however, to carry out the measure, was finally unsuccessful. The State was put under martial law. Dorr fled, but was afterwards taken, tried for treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life. After lingering in captivity for some time, he was pardoned; and in the meantime, a constitution for the State was adopted.

* See "Short Biographies of Eminent Personages."

What is said of the bill?—3. What distinguished man died in November, 1832?—4. By whom was Jackson succeeded? By what was his administration distinguished?—5. On the 4th of March, what took place? When did he die? What was done in consequence? During Mr. Tyler's administration, what took place? What was framed? What is said of the attempt? What became of Dorr?

6. The other important events of Mr. Tyler's administration were the settlement of the northeastern boundary line, between Maine and Canada, which was negotiated by Lord Ashburton, on the part of England, and Mr. Webster, on the part of the United States,—and the proposition for the admission of Texas into the Union.

On the 4th of March, 1845, Mr. Tyler's term of office expired, and Mr. James K. Polk, of Tennessee, who had been previously elected, succeeded to the office of President of the United States; and Mr. George M. Dallas, to that of Vice-President.

CHAPTER VI

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION, AND THE WAR WITH MEXICO.—A. D. 1845-1849.

ONE of the most important events which took place during Polk's administration, was the war with Mexico. Mexico had been for several centuries a Spanish province, but finally revolted against the power of Spain, and having established her independence, assumed a republican form of government. The people of the United States rejoiced at the event. They freely extended their hand to invite a sister republic to take her stand among the nations of the earth, and were the first to acknowledge her independence.

2. But scarcely had Mexico declared her independence from the crown of Spain, when she committed outrages on the persons and property of American citizens. While the citizens of the United States were engaged in carrying on a lawful commerce with Mexico, they were imprisoned, their vessels seized, and their flag repeatedly insulted. The government of the United States had frequently demanded redress in behalf of its injured citizens, but the demand was refused, or the subject evaded. It had been hoped that, after the convention of the 5th of April, 1831, the causes of com-

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6. What were the other important events of Tyler's administration? What took place on the 4th of March, 1845?

CHAPTER VI.—1. What was one of the most important events of Polk's administration? What is said of Mexico? Of the people of the United States?—2. What did Mexico commit? While citizens of the United States, etc., what did they do? What was hoped after the treaty of 1831?

plaint would have been removed, and that Mexico would be restrained by the laws and usages of civilized nations.

3. This was far from being the case; for scarcely had two months passed away, when fresh outrages were committed. Indeed, so intolerable had they become, that President Jackson, in his message to Congress, said, "that they should not be any longer endured," and a messenger was despatched to Mexico to make a final demand for redress. The Mexican government expressed a desire to continue a friendly intercourse, and at the same time promised that the difficulties should be settled.

In August, 1840, a joint commission was organized to settle the claims. The claims that were allowed before the board amounted to two million twenty-six thousand one hundred and thirty-nine dollars and sixty-eight cents; and the amount unsettled, at that time, fell a little short of one million.

4. On the 30th of January, 1843, a second convention was concluded between the two governments, by which it was determined, that the interest due on the awards, made in favor of our citizens, should be paid to them on the 30th of April, 1843, and the principal, with the interest accruing thereon, in five years, in equal installments, every three months. With this treaty, however, Mexico failed to comply. The claimants, up to the period of the war, having received only the interest due on the 30th of April, 1843, and three out of the twenty installments. This conduct on the part of Mexico may be regarded as one of the primary causes of the war. The annexation of Texas, however, was the immediate cause.

Another important cause of the war with Mexico was the desire of the South to acquire more territory for the extension of slavery. This was understood in both countries, and the knowledge of such a purpose explains the Whig opposition to commencing hostilities. However, when war was finally declared, that political party accepted the sentiment, "our country, right or wrong," and, therefore, supported President Polk almost as energetically as did the Democrats.

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3. What was again committed? What did General Jackson say and do? In 1840, what was done? What did the claims amount to? —4. On the 30th of January, 1843, what was concluded? With what did Mexico fail to comply? What is said of the claimants? What is said of this conduct? What other influence contributed to bring on the war?

The purpose of the dominant party in the United States was divined by the more able of the Mexican leaders, and before their minister, Gorostiza, left Washington, he published a remarkable protest against our purpose to acquire more territory for slavery.

5. Texas was formerly a province of Mexico, and had been settled principally by emigrants from the United States. In 1836, her citizens becoming displeased with the unjust and tyrannical policy of the Mexican government, declared themselves independent. A war ensued, which finally terminated in favor of the Texans, by the defeat of the Mexicans, in the battle of San Jacinto, at which Santa Anna, the Mexican President, was taken prisoner, A. D. 1836.

6. In 1845 the Texans, having intimated a wish to be admitted into the Union as a state, a proposition was laid before Congress for the annexation of the Republic of Texas to the United States; and after a warm discussion on the subject, the proposition passed, and Texas was admitted into the Union on the 29th of December, 1845. The boundary between Texas and Mexico had never been properly defined. Texas held the Rio Grande, from its source to its mouth, to be the boundary line between the two countries; while Mexico regarded the river Nueces as the boundary, and claimed the territory between the two rivers. Such was the state of things when Texas was admitted into the Union.

7. But the United States, having admitted Texas with the Rio Grande as boundary, claimed the disputed territory, and of necessity became bound to settle the difficulty with the Mexican government. Mexico still maintained her right to the territory between the two rivers, and began to make preparations to invade the country. On receiving intelligence of this, President Polk directed General Taylor to take some convenient position beyond the river Nueces, in order to repel any invasion on the part of Mexico. Accordingly, General Taylor crossed the Nueces, and took up a position at Point Isabel. Leaving a garrison at that place, he proceeded south to the banks of the Rio Grande, and erected

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5. What was Texas? In 1834, what took place? What ensued? How did it terminate?—6. In 1845, what was done? When was Texas admitted into the Union? What is said of the boundary between Texas and Mexico? What did Texas hold? What did Mexico regard?—7. What is said of the United States? What did Mexico still do? What did Polk direct? What did General Taylor do?

Fort Brown, opposite Matamoras, a town on the Mexican side of the river.

8. On the 23d of April, General Taylor was informed that a large Mexican force had crossed the Rio Grande. On receiving this information, he immediately despatched Captain Thornton, with a small force, to reconnoitre the position of the enemy; but Thornton, in charging the Mexicans, was captured, and his men either killed or taken prisoners. On the 29th of the same month, information reached General Taylor that Point Isabel was attacked by the enemy, and in distress. The general immediately resolved to go to its relief, and to open communication between the two posts. Accordingly, on the 1st of May, he left Fort Brown with the main body of his army on his march towards Point Isabel, leaving strict orders to the garrison of the fort to defend it to the last, if attacked by the enemy.

9. But scarcely had General Taylor departed when the Mexicans began to make preparations to annihilate the fort he had left behind, and bury beneath its ruins its brave defenders. Accordingly, on the 3d of May, the sacred quiet of Sunday was broken by the thunder of cannon. A furious assault was made upon the American works. From this time until Saturday, an almost incessant shower of shot and shell was poured upon the entrenchments. The situation of the garrison was critical in the extreme, shut up as they were within the walls of a temporary fortification, surrounded by a numerous and powerful enemy, cut off from all communication with their companions in arms, and having only four hundred rounds of ammunition.

10. In the meantime, General Arista sent a summons to the fort to surrender, with a declaration that if it were not obeyed within an hour, he would put all the garrison to the sword. A declaration like this, under the circumstances in which it was delivered, was calculated to shake the constancy of the stoutest hearts. But nothing could change the iron resolution of the garrison. A council of war was called, and

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What did he erect?—8. On the 23d of April, of what was General Taylor informed? What did he do? What was the fate of Thornton? On the 29th, what happened? What did the general resolve? On the 1st of May, what did he do?—9. What did the Mexicans do? On the 3d of May, what took place? What followed? What is said of the situation of the garrison?—10. In the meantime, what did General Arista do? What is said of this declaration? What was called?

the awful summons laid before the members. When the question was asked as to what should be done, the unanimous reply was—"Defend the fort till death;" and in a few moments every man was again at his post, prepared to carry out the resolution.

11. In the meantime signal-guns had been fired with a view of communicating to their companions at Point Isabel the death struggle that was going on at Fort Brown. As the heavy sounds broke upon the plains, they at length fell upon the ear of General Taylor. He listened for a moment, and remembering the smallness of the force he had left behind, and the number of the enemy, he immediately resolved to march to the aid of the garrison. On the 7th he commenced his march, saying: "If I meet the enemy, I will fight them." On the following day he arrived at a place called Palo Alto. At this point the Mexicans had assembled to oppose his progress. Drawn up in order of battle, their lines extended over a mile across a plain, bordered with chaparral; their lancers were placed a little in advance, on the left; behind these they had stationed their infantry, while their heavy batteries were placed in the centre.

12. When General Taylor came in sight of the enemy, he immediately drew up his little army in battle array. The conflict began at once, and for several hours raged with unabated fury. The Mexicans, relying on their numbers and in the strength of their position, fought in every confidence of victory. On the other side, our men, aware of the circumstances under which they fought, felt that victory depended on their skill and valor. The action continued with equal bravery on both sides until dark, when the Mexicans withdrew from their position, and retired into the chaparral, while General Taylor and his gallant army encamped for the night upon the field of battle. The forces of the Mexicans in this engagement amounted to six thousand men, while those under General Taylor did not exceed two thousand three hundred. The loss of the enemy in killed and wounded

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What was the unanimous reply?—11. What was done? What is said? What did he do and resolve? On the 7th, what did he do and say? Where did he arrive? At this place, who were assembled? Describe the position.—12. What did General Taylor do? What is said of the conflict? What is said of the Mexicans? Of our men? What is said of the action? What of the Mexicans? Of General Taylor and his army? What was the number of the forces on each side?

amounted to nearly four hundred, while the loss on the side of the Americans was only nine killed, and forty-two wounded.

13. The situation of General Taylor was exceedingly critical. His troops were weary after a hard-fought battle. He was within a short distance of the fort, but far removed from reinforcements, while the enemy was reinforced, and preparing again to oppose his progress. In this state of things, he called a council of war. Some were for advancing, others were for entrenching where they stood, or for retreating to Point Isabel. When all had spoken, the old general said, with a firmness that bespoke the greatness of his soul: "Gentlemen, if I live I will be at Fort Brown before night." This determined the council; and his officers unanimously resolved to support his resolution.

14. As soon as morning dawned, General Taylor continued his march toward Fort Brown, and came in sight of the enemy, drawn up in order of battle, at a place called Resaca de la Palma. The Mexicans had strongly fortified this point, by erecting a battery on the right of the road leading to it, another on the left, and a third in the centre. As our little army advanced, the enemy's batteries opened upon it a furious and destructive fire. Still they moved onward, pouring in a well-directed fire at every step. On the right they gained considerable advantage, while on the left, Ridgely's battery swept down the enemy at every discharge.

15. From the beginning of the contest, our army had advanced, and had driven the enemy from their original positions in every part, except along the road where the centre battery was playing. This had caused considerable loss to our lines. At length, General Taylor seeing that the fate of battle depended on the capturing of that battery, rode up to Captain May and ordered him to charge it at the head of his dragoons, adding these words: "Sir, you must take it." May immediately turned to his companions, and, pointing to the battery, said: "Men, we must take that battery." In a moment, May, at the head of his gallant troop,

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What was the loss of the enemy? The loss on the side of the Americans?—13. What is said of General Taylor? Of his troops? What was called? What is said of some? Of others? What did the General himself say?—14. As soon as the morning dawned, what did General Taylor do? Where did he meet the Mexicans? As the army advanced, what happened? What did they still do?—15. From the beginning, what is said? What did General Taylor do, and say? What is said of May?

moved along the road, in the very face of the enemy's blazing battery, a cloud of dust marking their course.

16. In a few moments more the bugle sounded the assault; but just at that instant a furious discharge swept through them, leaving nearly a third of the company prostrate upon the ground. When smoke and dust cleared away, it was seen that the fortifications were in possession of the Americans. May, upon his powerful charger, leaped the ditch and breastwork of the battery, followed by his companions; they rode down the men at their guns, broke through the Mexican lines, and took General Vega prisoner. At this sight a universal shout was raised from our army. The infantry rushed forward, driving the enemy before them. The fate of the day was decided; and from that moment the battle became a rout, and the Mexicans, terrified at the valor of their enemies, rushed furiously toward the river in the direction of Matamoras.

17. While the conflict raged, the garrison of Fort Brown had listened with intense anxiety; as the shrill sound of the musket, and the heavy roar of the cannon vibrated across the plain, and as the struggle deepened, their anxiety increased. In breathless silence they awaited the issue of the fearful contest. But when they saw the enemy routed, and rushing in wild confusion over the field, pursued by our cavalry, they mounted the rampart, and waving their banner to the breeze, they sent up a shout of victory. Although more than three thousand shots had been fired at the fort, yet only two men had been killed. In this battle the Mexicans lost upwards of two hundred killed and six hundred wounded, together with two thousand stand of arms, six hundred mules, and the private papers of General Arista. The loss on the part of the Americans was thirty-nine killed and eighty-two wounded.

18. On the south side of the river, and directly opposite Fort Brown, stands the city of Matamoras, about twenty-eight miles from Point Isabel, and six from Palo Alto, and at that time containing about ten thousand inhabitants. Gen-

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In a moment, what did he do?—16. In a few moments more, what happened? When the smoke and dust cleared away, what was seen? What did May do? Whom did he take prisoner? At the sight, what was done? What did the Mexicans do?—17. While the battle raged, what is said of the garrison? When they saw the enemy, etc., what did they do? How many were killed in the fort? In this battle, what did the Mexicans lose? What was the loss on the part of the Americans?—18. Where does the city of Matamoras stand?

eral Taylor, after spending a few days at Fort Brown, resolved to make himself master of Matamoras. Accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, he sent a communication to the Mexican general, demanding a surrender of the place, together with all public property in the city, and only giving him until three o'clock to consider the matter. The peremptory tone in which the demand was made had the desired effect; for, in a few hours afterwards, the governor of the city sent a communication to General Taylor, stating that he might enter the city as soon as he thought proper. On the next day he took possession of Matamoras, but found it deserted by Arista, the Mexican general, who, previous to his departure, had thrown a large number of cannons into wells.

19. Although General Taylor had defeated the Mexicans in two decisive engagements, and was now in possession of Matamoras, still he found it impossible to follow up his success, owing to the lack of troops and supplies, and he was obliged to remain inactive during a great part of the summer. In the meantime a large force, under the command of General Ampudia, had concentrated at Monterey, a city in New Leon, about one hundred and seventy miles from Matamoras.

20. On the 7th of September, General Taylor, having received reinforcements, left Matamoras, and on the 19th of the same month he encamped at the Walnut Springs, a short distance from Monterey. The city of Monterey was strongly fortified both by nature and art; its narrow streets were barricaded with heavy masonry, while from the windows of the houses, and from the flat roofs, on which battlements were erected, a deadly fire could be poured upon an advancing enemy. To the west, on a steep and craggy eminence, stood a fortification called the Bishop's Palace. Strong and massive forts were erected on the north and east, while the San Juan river flowed along the south. These fortifications were mounted with forty pieces of cannon, and manned by more than ten thousand men.

21. Nothwithstanding the strength of the position, and the

What did General Taylor resolve? On the 17th, what did he do? What is said of this peremptory tone? What followed? On the next day, what did he do?—19. What is said of General Taylor? In the meantime, where had a large force concentrated?—20. On the 7th, what did Taylor do? What is said of the city, and how was it fortified? Where was the Bishop's Palace? By what were these fortifications mounted?

great superiority of numbers, on the part of the Mexicans, General Taylor resolved to attack the city. Orders were given to make the attack in three divisions. The first was placed under General Twiggs, the second under General Worth, and the third under General Butler. On the 20th of September, General Worth was ordered to take a position on the Saltillo road, and to storm the heights of the Bishop's Palace; but, owing to unavoidable delays, Worth was not able to reach his position until the morning of the 21st.

22. On this morning the battle properly commenced, and raged but with little intermission for three days. On the first day, several of the principal forts were stormed and taken in the rear of the city; and on the following day, the heights of the Bishop's Palace were carried, and the fort itself fell into the hands of the Americans. The 23d was marked by desperate fighting on both sides. The Americans still continued to advance, but every inch of ground they gained was desperately contested; they were compelled to drive back the enemy at the point of the bayonet. But nothing could check their impetuosity, or weaken their courage. Fortification after fortification yielded to their valor, until, on the night of the third day's battle, the troops of Worth and Quitman had nearly met in the principal plaza of the city.

23. On the following morning General Ampudia surrendered the city to General Taylor. An armistice was concluded for eight weeks, or until instructions from the government could be received.

Monterey was defended by forty-two pieces of cannon, well supplied with ammunition, and garrisoned by ten thousand men. The forces of the Americans amounted to six thousand six hundred men. The loss on the side of the Mexicans was estimated at about one thousand in killed and wounded; while the Americans lost one hundred and twenty-six killed and three hundred and fifty wounded. After this battle General Taylor established his headquarters at Mon-

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21. What did General Taylor resolve? What orders were given? On the 20th of September, what was General Worth ordered to do? What followed?—22. What is said of the battle? On the first day, what were taken? On the following day? What is said of the 23d? What is said of the Americans? What were they compelled to do? What is said of their valor?—23. What is said of General Ampudia? What was concluded? How was Monterey defended? What was the loss on both sides? Where did Taylor establish his headquarters?

terey, while General Worth, with one thousand two hundred men, was directed to take up his position at Saltillo.

24. In the meantime, General Santa Anna, who had previously been banished from the country, was recalled and placed at the head of the Mexican government. The high miliary reputation of Santa Anna inspired the Mexicans with renewed confidence, and in a short time he collected around him an army of twenty thousand men, and encamped at San Luis Potosi, a strongly fortified city.

While these things were going on, General Winfield Scott was ordered by the government to take command of all the land forces in Mexico; at the same time he was directed to withdraw from General Taylor nearly all the regulars under his command, to aid in the reduction of the city of Vera Cruz. At the same time General Worth was ordered to leave his post at Saltillo, and embark for Vera Cruz, while General Taylor was directed to fall back to Monterey, and await the arrival of reinforcements.

25. About the middle of February, 1847, General Taylor, learning that the Mexican President was about to make an attempt to possess himself of the posts of communication betwen Saltillo and Matamoras, resolved to frustrate his design. On the 20th of February he was encamped at Agua Nueva, about eighteen miles from Saltillo, with a force of five thousand men. Here he was informed that Santa Anna, at the head of twenty thousand men, was about twenty miles distant. On receiving this intelligence, General Taylor fell back to Buena Vista, about seven miles from Saltillo. The position selected by General Taylor was one of great strength. He thus describes it himself:

26. "The road at this point becomes a narrow defile; the valley on the right being full of impassable gullies, while on the left, rugged ridges extend far back to the mountains. The ground was so broken as nearly to paralyze the artillery and cavalry of the enemy. Captain Washington's battery was posted to command the road; another force, under Colonels Hardin and Bissel, occupied the crests of the ridge on the

24. In the meantime, what took place? What is said of his reputation? What did he collect? While these things were going on what took place? What orders did General Worth receive? What General Taylor?—25. In February, of what was General Taylor informed, and what did he resolve? On the 20th of February, where did he encamp? Where did he fall back to?—26. How does he describe the position? Where was Washington's battery placed? What place did Hardin and Bissel occupy?

left and in the rear, and a small force, under Colonels Yell and Marshall, occupied the left, near the base of the mountain, while another body held the reserve."

27. On the morning of the 22d of February, the Mexican army approached the American lines, and about eleven o'clock Santa Anna sent a communication to General Taylor informing him that he was surrounded by twenty thousand men, and demanding an immediate surrender. The messenger was politely received by General Taylor, but a positive refusal to comply with the demand returned to the Mexican general. Shortly after the reply of General Taylor was delivered to Santa Anna, the Mexican batteries were opened upon the American lines, but without doing any material injury. In sight of each other, the two armies remained within their lines until the close of the evening. While the anxious night of the 22d wore away, the combatants on either side stood at their arms, waiting with impatience the return of day. The Mexicans, actuated by all the emotions that patriotism and national pride can inspire, were resolved to drive back the invaders, and wipe off the disgrace that attended their arms on the plains of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and at Monterey; while the Americans were resolved to sustain the honor of their country, or find a burial-place in the mountain ravines of Buena Vista.

28. At daybreak on the following morning the battle of Buena Vista was commenced.

29. The conflict raged all day, and both armies fought with desperate valor, but the Americans had the advantage. Night alone put an end to the contest. Our soldiers slept upon the battle-ground, with a determination to renew the conflict in the morning. But before the return of day the Mexicans had entirely disappeared, leaving their dead and dying upon the field of carnage; they had retreated to Agua Nueva and finally to San Luis Potosi.

The loss of the Mexicans in this battle is estimated at about two thousand in killed and wounded. The loss on the

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27. On the 22d, what took place? What did Santa Anna do? What is said of the messenger? After the reply, what followed? In sight of each other, what is said of the armies? While the night wore away, what is said of the combatants? What is said of the Mexicans? Of the Americans?—28. At daybreak, what took place?—29. How long did the battle last? What is said of our soldiers? Before the return of day, what happened? What was the loss of the Mexicans?

side of the Americans was two hundred and sixty-seven killed and four hundred and fifty-six wounded, and twenty-three missing. General Taylor now fell back on Monterey.

30. Shortly after General Taylor had received orders to take up a position on the Rio Grande, Congress had authorized the President to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers; and at the same time to increase the regular army. On the 13th of May, 1846, President Polk issued a proclamation, stating "that by the act of the Republic of Mexico, a state of war existed between the two governments," and called upon the people of the United States to support such measures as might be adopted for obtaining a speedy, just, and honorable peace. About this time the news of the splendid victories of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma reached Washington, and Congress immediately passed a vote of thanks to General Taylor, and to the officers and men under his command; Taylor at the same time was raised to the rank of major-general.

31. On the 23d of November, 1846, General Scott received instructions from the secretary of war to repair to Mexico, and to take the command of the forces there assembled. He immediately departed and reached the Rio Grande on the 1st of January, 1847. The first operation of General Scott, after reaching Mexico, was the reduction of the city of Vera Cruz. But finding the troops under his command insufficient for that purpose, he withdrew nearly all the regular troops from the army under General Taylor. The rendezvous of the troops was at the island of Lobos, about one hundred and twenty-five miles north of the city of Vera Cruz. On the 9th of March the troops reached the shore, a little below the city, and on the 22d everything was in readiness to commence the siege.

32. Before commencing operations, however, General Scott sent a summons to the Mexican authorities to surrender the city, giving, at the same time, to the inhabitants who wished to retire, a certain period, and to take with them

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What was the loss on the side of the Americans?—30. Shortly after, etc., what had Congress authorized? On the 13th of May, 1846, what did Mr. Polk issue? About this time, what was received at Washington? What was passed by Congress?—31. On the 23d of November, what did General Scott receive? When did he reach the Rio Grande? What was his first operation? Finding his troops insufficient, what did he do? Where did the troops assemble? On the 9th of March, what took place? And on the 22d?—32. Before commencing operations, what did Scott do?

what property they pleased. The summons to surrender being rejected, the American batteries immediately opened a destructive fire upon the city. The cannonading continued from this time, with some slight intermission, until the morning of the 26th. The scene is described as one of terrific grandeur.

The darkness of the night was illumined by the exploding shells and flaming rockets, as they poured destruction over the ill-fated city; while the roar of the cannon, the crash of the falling houses, and the shrieks of the wounded and dying, reëchoed across the surrounding country.

33. On the morning of the 26th, the Mexican governor of the city sent a messenger to General Scott, with overtures to surrender; and on the following day articles of capitulation were signed. The city and the famous castle of San Juan de Ulloa, together with upwards of four thousand prisoners, about seven hundred cannon, and nearly ten thousand stand of small arms, fell into the hands of the Americans.

34. While victory was attending the American forces on land, their flag was equally triumphant on the ocean. The squadron under Commodores Sloat and Stockton was chiefly employed in subjugating California, while the squadron under Commodore Connor was chiefly engaged on the Gulf of Mexico. The cities of Tabasco and Frontiera were captured without making much resistance. On the day after the surrender of Vera Cruz, an expedition was fitted out for the capture of Alvarado, under Commodore Perry, who despatched Lieutenant Hunter in advance, with a small steamer. Hunter having arrived off the bar, on the afternoon of the same day, opened a fire on the fort, which surrendered the next morning. He then proceeded up the river, captured four schooners, and on the following day anchored off Flacoalparn, a city at that time containing seven thousand inhabitants, which immediately surrendered. When Commodore Perry arrived, a few days afterwards, he found these important places in the hands of Americans.

35. After the reduction of Vera Cruz, General Scott com-

The summons being rejected, what followed? How long did the cannonading continue? What is said of the scene?—33. On the morning of the 26th, what took place? What fell into the hands of the Americans?—34. What did the squadron under Sloat and Stockton do? What cities were taken? On the day after the surrender of Vera Cruz, what took place? What did Hunter do? What did Perry find?—35. After the reduction of Vera Cruz, what did General Scott do?

menced his march, with about six thousand men, towards the city of Mexico, the capital of the republic. He proceeded, with little opposition, from the 8th to the 16th of April, when he was informed that a strong force of the enemy was in front, strongly fortified, on the heights of a mountain. No position could be more favorable to the Mexicans than that which they had selected. The road by which the Americans were obliged to ascend lay among the lofty hills, whose tops were strongly fortified and garrisoned. The highest of these peaks was Cerro Gordo, elevated more than a thousand feet, on which stood a battery that commanded the road below. The whole of these formidable entrenchments were defended by fifteen thousand men, under the command of Santa Anna in person.

36. On the 16th, General Scott arrived in front of the Mexican works, with about six thousand men under his command, but instead of advancing along the national road, a road was constructed which wound around the base of the mountain, to the right, directly in the rear of the enemy, and on the evening of the 17th orders for the battle were issued. During the night the Americans succeeded in dragging several pieces of their heavy cannon up several heights, and as soon as the morning dawned they commenced a tremendous fire upon the works of the enemy. An obstinate battle followed, in which the Mexicans were defeated, their fortifications were stormed, and the Stars and the Stripes unfurled from the heights of Cerro Gordo.

37. Santa Anna escaped on one of his mules, leaving his carriage in the hands of the Americans. The loss of the Mexicans in this battle was great: one thousand two hundred were killed and wounded, and more than three thousand prisoners were taken; of this number, two hundred and eighty-eight were officers, and five were generals; besides five thousand stands of arms and forty pieces of cannon fell into the hands of the Americans. The Americans lost sixty-three killed, and three hundred and sixty-eight wounded.

38. On the 19th of April, General Worth entered Jalapa,

On the 16th, of what was he informed? What is said of the position? Of the road? What was the highest of these? By what were these entrenchments defended?—36. On the 16th, what took place? What did he do? On the 17th, what was done? During the night, what did the Americans do? What ensued?—37. What is said of Santa Anna? What was the loss of the Mexicans in this battle? What did the Americans lose?—38. On the 19th of April, what took place?

a city situated on the national road, about fifty miles from Vera Cruz, and at that time containing a population of about thirteen thousand. From this place Worth pushed forward, and on the 22d took possession of the city and castle of Perote, from which the garrison had fled, leaving behind them sixty-four guns and mortars, eleven thousand and sixty-five cannon-balls, fourteen thousand three hundred bombs, and five hundred muskets. On the 15th of May, General Worth took possession of the city of Puebla, where General Scott remained for the greater part of the summer. Puebla is about sixty-six miles from the city of Mexico, and one hundred and eighty-six miles from Vera Cruz, and contained at that time about eighty thousand inhabitants.

39. In the early part of August, General Scott resumed his march towards the capital of the Mexican Republic, having under his command about nine thousand men. He met with but little interruption until he reached Agotea, about fifteen miles from the city of Mexico. From this place, the road leading to the city is a causeway over a marsh, and the entrance to it is commanded by a lofty hill, called El Pinnel, which had been strongly fortified. Batteries, mounting fifty guns, were placed along the sides of this causeway, and the whole defended by twenty-five thousand men, under the command of Santa Anna. In order to avoid these fortifications, General Scott ordered a road to be cut around Lake Chalco, by which General Worth reached San Augustine on the 17th, a town about nine miles south of the city of Mexico. A short distance from this place, on a high eminence, called Contreras, General Valencia was stationed with a strong force.

40. On the 19th continual skirmishes took place, but during the night the rain fell in torrents, and caused a temporary suspension of arms. Early on the following morning, a furious charge was made on the enemy's works. A desperate conflict ensued for a few hours. The Mexicans at length wavered, and finally fled in confusion, leaving the heights of Contreras in the hands of the Americans. The loss of

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On the 22d, what did Worth do? And on the 15th of May? Where is Puebla?—39. What did General Scott do? What is said of his progress? From this place, what is said of the road? What were placed along the sides? How was it defended? To avoid this, what did Scott order? What was stationed a short distance from this place?—40. On the 19th, what took place? And on the following morning? What is said of the Mexicans?

the Mexicans in this battle was severe; they left seven hundred of their companions dead upon the field of battle, and upwards of eight hundred were taken prisoners; besides this, the Americans captured twenty-two pieces of cannon, a number of pack mules, and a large quantity of munitions of war. The loss of the Americans amounted to seventy killed and wounded.

41. After this battle, our army passed rapidly towards Churubusco. At this point the main body of the Mexican army, to the number of twenty-seven thousand men, under the command of Santa Anna, had taken up its position. At one o'clock, in the afternoon, the battle commenced. The combatants of both sides rushed to the contest with the utmost ardor. The Americans, encouraged by the many battles which they had already gained, fought in the confidence that another victory would attend their arms; the Mexicans felt that the fate of war was against them, nevertheless they knew that if they failed on this occasion, their capital would fall into the hands of their enemies; therefore, they resolved to make a last and desperate resistance.

42. As soon as the action become general, the battle raged with the utmost fury; the roar of the musketry and the thunder of the cannon shook the very hills, and vibrated for miles across the plains. The Americans advanced amidst a most terrific fire, and drove the enemy from their guns at the point of the bayonet. After the battle had raged for about two hours, the Mexicans were completely routed, and fled with precipitation to the walls of their capital. This battle was attended with many casualties on both sides. The Mexicans lost nearly two thousand in killed, wounded, and prisoners; while our loss amounted to one thousand and fifty-five in killed and wounded.

43. On the 20th, negotiations were opened between the two armies, which resulted in an armistice, providing for a cessation of hostilities, and an exchange of prisoners. During the armistice, Mr. Trist, the American commissioner, offered a proposition in behalf of his government, for settling the difficulties between the two countries. The propo-

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What was the loss on both sides?—41. After this battle, what did our army do? What is said of this place? What is said of the combatants? Of the Americans? The Mexicans?—42. What is said of the battle? Of the Americans? Of the Mexicans? What was the loss on both sides?—43. On the 20th, what took place? During the armistice, what was offered?

sition was rejected by Mexico, and General Scott, finding that the Mexicans were fortifying the city, in direct violation of the armistice, declared it at an end on the 10th of September, and made immediate arrangements for recommencing hostilities.

44. In the meantime the Mexicans had strongly entrenched themselves at a place called Molino del Rey, or the King's Mill. The place was surrounded by a regular field-work, mounted by ten pieces of artillery, and the whole defended by ten thousand men. The fortification, however, was stormed and taken by General Worth, at the head of three thousand seven hundred Americans. On the 13th, the fortress of Chapultepec, which was considered the key to the Mexican lines, was taken by the Americans, after a desperate conflict.

45. After the fall of Chapultepec, Generals Smith and Quitman marched rapidly on towards the city of Mexico, although they suffered severely from the enemy's battery stationed along the road; and on the 14th, they entered the city, driving the enemy before them at the point of the bayonet. In the meantime, General Worth's division had filed round to the left, and entered the city by the gate of San Gosmo. The next morning at sunrise the American forces marched into the great Plaza, in front of the Cathedral, and precisely at seven o'clock, on the 15th of September, 1847, the Star-Spangled Banner was elevated in triumph over the capital of the Mexican Republic. Of the ten thousand troops with which General Scott left Puebla, only about seven thousand remained to witness his entry into Mexico.

46. After the fall of the capital, no important battles took place. Skirmishing continued for a few days, but hostilities gradually subsided. A treaty of peace between Mexico and the United States was signed by the plenipotentiaries of both nations at the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the 2d of February, 1848. This treaty was afterwards amended by the Congress of the United States, and ratified by Mexico; and the respective ratifications were exchanged at Queretaro,

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What followed its rejection? 44. In the meantime, what was done? What is said of the place? What is said of the fortifications? On the 13th, what took place?—45. After the fall of Chapultepec, what followed? In the meantime, what did General Worth's division do? What took place the next morning? Of the ten thousand troops, etc., how many remained?—46. After the fall of the capital, what followed? Where and when was a treaty of peace signed? What is further observed?

on the 3d of May, 1848. By this treaty the boundary line between Mexico and the United States commences in the Gulf of Mexico, three leagues from land, and proceeds thence up the middle of the Rio Grande, to the northern boundary of Mexico; thence to the western termination; from that, along its western line until it intersects the river Gila; down that river until it empties into the Rio Colorado, then across the Colorado, following the division line between Upper and Lower California, to the Pacific Ocean.

CHAPTER VII

THE ADMINISTRATIONS OF TAYLOR, FILLMORE, AND PIERCE.—A. D. 1849-1857.

THE Presidential election of 1848 resulted in the choice of General Zachary Taylor to the office of President of the United States. Millard Fillmore, of New York, was at the same time elected Vice-President. John M. Clayton, of Delaware, was appointed secretary of state; and William M. Meredith, of Pennsylvania, secretary of the treasury. During the previous Congress, a new office, called the Home Department, and intended to aid the secretary of the treasury, had been created, and the President selected Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, to fill the newly-created department.

2. The short administration of President Taylor was not marked by any events of striking importance. During the first year after his election, the people of California met and framed a state constitution, and in the following Congress applied for admission into the Union. In the meantime the discussion of the slavery question caused much excitement throughout the country. In April, 1850, a select committee was appointed in the Senate of the United States to prepare a bill for the purpose of producing harmony in the national councils. Of this committee, Henry Clay was chairman. The chief features of the bill reported by this committee, and

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By this treaty, what is the boundary between the two countries? CHAPTER VII.—1. Who were elected President and Vice-President in 1848? During the previous Congress, what had been done?—2. What was done during the first year of his administration? What question caused much excitement, and what was proposed?

known as the "Omnibus Bill," were the admission of California, a territorial government for Utah and New Mexico, and the abolition of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia. After a protracted discussion, the bill was passed. In its final form the act provided for the payment to Texas of $10,000,000, and for a more stringent enforcement of the Fugitive Slave law.

3. On the 9th of July, 1850, the whole country was thrown into mourning by the sad announcement of the death of President Taylor. This melancholy event took place at the Presidential Mansion, in Washington, after a short illness of five days.

4. By the death of General Taylor, the Vice-President, Mr. Fillmore, under the provisions of the Constitution, became President of the United States. The cabinet of the late President having resigned, a new one was formed, with Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, as secretary of state. During the following session of Congress, the compromise measures, which had been embraced in the "Omnibus Bill," were brought forward separately, and received the sanction of that body, thus happily allaying the excitement that had so much agitated the country. The substance of the compromise measures of 1850 are given above.

5. During the spring of 1851 a second expedition for the invasion of Cuba was projected. The President, on receiving intelligence of the intended expedition, issued a proclamation warning all those of our citizens, who should take part in it, that by the very act of thus violating the laws of neutrality, they would put themselves beyond the protection of the United States. Notwithstanding this warning, a body of about four hundred and sixty men, under the command of General Lopez, sailed from New Orleans in August, and landed in Cuba. Contrary to their expectations, the people, instead of uniting with them, fled at their approach and refused to give any assistance, and the invaders being attacked by a superior force, were either killed in battle or made prisoners. Lopez having fallen, with the rest, into the hands of the Cuban authorities, was conducted to Havana and executed.

What were the features of this bill?—3. When and where did President Taylor die?—4. Who became President on the death of General Taylor? During the following year, what was done?—5. What was projected in the spring of 1851? What was the fate of Lopez?

The Americans who survived, after remaining some months in prison, were liberated and returned to this country.

6. In June, 1852, the Democratic convention met in Baltimore, and nominated Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, for the office of President of the United States, and William R. King, of Alabama, for the Vice-Presidency, and at the election, in the following November, these gentlemen were chosen.

This year was rendered memorable for the deaths of two distinguished men. On the 29th of June, Henry Clay died in Washington, and in the following October, Daniel Webster departed this life at his residence in Massachusetts.

7. On the 4th of March, 1853, President Pierce entered on the duties of his office. He selected Wm. L. Marcy, of New York, as secretary of state. On the 18th of April following, Mr. King, the Vice-President, died shortly after his return from Cuba, where he had gone for the benefit of his health.

During the early part of the year 1853, a dispute occurred between the United States and Mexico, respecting a portion of territory called the Mesilla Valley. General Lane, Governor of New Mexico, took possession of the disputed territory, and the Mexican government prepared to enforce its right by an appeal to arms. The difficulty, however, was happily settled by Mexico yielding her right to the Mesilla Valley, and granting to the United States the right to build a railroad across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, for the sum of ten million dollars.

8. During the year 1854, several important treaties were concluded by the United States with foreign governments. With a view to establishing a friendly and commercial intercourse between the United States and Japan, Commodore Perry had been sent with an American fleet to that country, and succeeded in arranging a treaty of peace and amity. This was concluded and signed on the 31st of March, 1854, and by it the Japanese ports of Simoda and Hakadadi were opened to American vessels to obtain provisions and fuel; and safety and protection were guaranteed to all American seamen cast upon the Japanese coast, besides the right

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6. Who were elected President and Vice-President in 1852? By what was this year rendered memorable?—7. What took place on the 4th of March? When did the Vice-President die? In the early part of 1853, what happened between the United States and Mexico? —8. In 1854, what important treaties were signed?

of a place of burial for Americans who might die in that country. About the same time a reciprocal treaty of commerce between the United States and the British provinces of North America was concluded, and a treaty with Russia, by which that government recognized the doctrine that "free ships make free goods," and that the property of neutrals, unless contraband articles, should be respected, even if carried on board enemies' vessels.

9. During the early part of the year 1854, some difficulty occurred between the United States and the authorities of San Juan, or Greytown, on the Mosquito shore. The Transit Company had demanded of the authorities of the town an indemnity for certain property, alleged to have been stolen or destroyed by natives, and during the controversy a negro was shot by an American named Smith, the captain of a steamer running on the river. An attempt was made to arrest the offender, but it was resisted on the part of the passengers, among whom was Mr. Borland, the United States minister to Nicaragua. Mr. Borland subsequently, going on shore, was assailed by the inhabitants of Greytown, and in the *melée* that followed was struck in the face with a bottle.

10. As soon as this outrage was made known at Washington, orders were despatched to Captain Hollins, commander of the sloop-of-war Cyane, not only to demand an apology from the authorities of Greytown, but also an indemnity for the Transit Company. No regard being paid to these demands, Hollins, after several days' delay, opened his batteries against the town, and in a few hours completely destroyed it. This conduct on the part of our government was severely censured, and denounced as an act of severity entirely uncalled for by the circumstances of the case.

11. During the last year of President Pierce's administration troubles of a serious nature arose in Kansas. In February, 1856, the President issued a proclamation stating that combinations had been formed in the territory to subvert the legal authority, and warned all persons engaged therein to desist therefrom, and at the same time directed the United States troops at Forts Leavenworth and Riley, to be in readiness to obey the requisition of Governor Shannon, in

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At the same time what other treaty was concluded?—9. During the early part of 1854, what difficulty occurred between the United States and San Juan?—10. What orders did Captain Hollins receive, and what followed?—11. In 1856, what proclamation did the President issue in relation to Kansas?

maintaining the peace of the territory. The free state men had, in October previous, met at Topeka, and framed a constitution excluding slavery from the territory, and under this constitution they elected a governor, lieutenant-governor, and a state legislature. This body met at Lawrence, and elected Governor Reeder, and General Lane, United States Senators. In the meantime, indictments for treason were made out against Mr. Robinson, the free state governor, who immediately fled from the territory. Shortly after this, Sheriff Jones, who, it was claimed, had previously been severely wounded in an attempt to arrest two persons at Lawrence, entered that town at the head of a large force, and after taking all the arms in the place, ordered the hotel and printing-office to be destroyed, they having been declared nuisances by the grand jury. At the same time the house of Governor Robinson was destroyed, and numerous acts of murder and robbery were subsequently committed throughout the territory.

12. In the meantime there was held a new election for delegates for a convention to frame a state constitution. This body met at Lecompton, in the fall of 1857, and, after several weeks' deliberation, adopted a constitution tolerating slavery within the territory. This constitution was submitted to and ratified by the people, and, during the subsequent Congress, application was made for the admission of Kansas into the Union under the Lecompton constitution. After a long discussion in Congress, and much excitement throughout the country, a bill was passed on the 30th of April, 1858, admitting Kansas, with the Lecompton constitution, with a proviso that the question of slavery should first be submitted to a vote of the people of the territory, and if the majority of the votes were in favor of the slavery clause, then Kansas should be admitted with the Lecompton constitution; but if the slavery clause should be rejected, the question of her admission was to be considered as rejected. This question was subsequently submitted to the people, and the result was the rejection of the clause establishing slavery in the territory.

13. In the fall of 1856 an election for President and Vice-President took place, and, after an exciting contest, resulted

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What did the free State men do? What is related of Sheriff Jones?—12. In the meantime, what took place? After a long discussion, what did Congress do? What was the result of the election? —13. In 1856, who were elected to the office of President and Vice-President?

in the choice of the Democratic candidates, James Buchanan and John C. Breckinridge, to the office of President and Vice-President of the United States. The other candidates were Fremont, Republican, and Fillmore, Native American. The latter received only the electoral vote of a single state, that of Maryland. Buchanan was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1857, and selected Cass, of Michigan, as secretary of state.

CHAPTER VIII

ADMINISTRATIONS OF BUCHANAN AND LINCOLN; CIVIL WAR; ASSASSINATION OF THE PRESIDENT AND END OF THE WAR.—A. D. 1857-1865.

IF Mr. Buchanan's administration was peaceful, still the clouds that had been gathering for years on the political horizon arrived at their culminating point during the latter part of his term, and were soon to burst, deluging the country with blood, and plunging it into all the horrors of civil war. The antagonism between the anti-slavery party at the North and the Southern slaveholders had hitherto expended itself in violent speeches on the floor of Congress, and no less violent and inflammatory appeals to the passions of the people, through the agency of the press. The two parties were brought face to face, and the threatened conflict made imminent, by the election of Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate, to the Presidency, in November, 1860.

2. The Southern States took alarm at this advent to power of a party inimical to the institution upon which they believed their prosperity to rest. The oft-mooted question of secession was now openly discussed, and conventions were called in the several states, which, in nearly all cases, by a large majority, voted ordinances of secession. The leading states in this movement were South Carolina, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas. These were subsequently followed by Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee. Kentucky saw her people divided,

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Who were the other candidates? When did Mr. Buchanan take his seat?

CHAPTER VIII.—1. What happened towards the close of Mr. Buchanan's administration?—2. How did the Southern States receive the election of Mr. Lincoln? What states seceded?

and her soil desecrated by local civil strife. The representatives of the seceding states, having met in convention at Montgomery, Alabama, organized the Provisional Government of the Confederate States of America, and elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President.

3. This final step, however, was not taken before an effort at conciliation had been made. The Southern representatives in Congress were instructed to demand guarantees for the future from the friends of the incoming administration. Virginia, "Mother of Presidents," remained for some time as a voluntary mediator. But the secret determination of both parties made the result inevitable. The seceding states had, as a precautionary measure, taken possession of most of the Federal forts on their respective territory, as well as of all the public property. The United States, however, still retained possession of several strong positions, such as Fortress Monroe, in Virginia; Fort Pickens, in Florida, and Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor. An attempt having been made by the government to send supplies to the last-named fort, it was attacked on the 12th of April, 1861, by the Confederate batteries of Charleston, commanded by General Beauregard. The fort surrendered, and was evacuated on the 13th. This was the first gun fired. It was destined, unhappily, to be the signal for the most disastrous war that has ever raged in any country. The events are, perhaps, too recent to allow the historian to write an impartial appreciation of their causes and results. We must be content to record simply as we find them, and let posterity pass judgment.

4. The first act of President Lincoln, after the fall of Fort Sumter, was the issuing of a proclamation, calling for seventy-five thousand volunteers to put down the rebellion. Little was it thought then, how many hundred thousands would be required to carry on the mighty struggle during the four years that it lasted. The first shock of arms took place on the soil of Virginia, on the 10th of June, 1861. General B. F. Butler, having started from Newport News, with a column of five thousand infantry, to march on Yorktown, found one thousand two hundred Confederates under General (then colonel) Magruder, intrenched at a church

What action did they take?—3. What measures did the seceding states adopt? What was the first act of hostility?—4. What was Mr. Lincoln's first act? Where did the first shock of arms take place?

called Great Bethel. The advance of the Federals, led by Colonel Winthrop, charged the breastworks in gallant style, but were repulsed with great slaughter. They returned to Newport News. On the 21st of July was fought the first grand battle, made famous under the name of Battle of Manassas. The Federals, under General McDowell, met the Confederates, under Generals Beauregard and Johnston, near a stream called Bull Run. The result was the total rout of the Union army, which fell back in disorder upon Washington. The Confederates, it is said, could have taken the capital if they had pursued the enemy, but they lacked cavalry, and remained content with the possession of the field of battle, thereby reaping no fruits from their victory. On the 21st of October, the battle of Ball's Bluff, Virginia, was fought. The Union forces, under General Banks, were defeated by the Confederates, under Colonel Jenifer. The Federal general, Baker, was killed whilst gallantly leading his division.

5. During the remainder of the year 1861, little fighting was done; but the Federal government was preparing earnestly for the campaign of 1862. The Federals opened this campaign with four hundred and fifty thousand men, operating simultaneously in Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Kentucky. The Confederates do not seem to have been fully awake to the magnitude of the task before them, although their armies were swelled by enthusiastic volunteers during the first year. These were twelve-month troops, and their time was nearly out, when their government passed the Conscription Bill, calling to arms all men under thirty-five years of age. A series of disasters to the Southern arms was inaugurated in the year 1862. General Grant attacked Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland river, and took it, after four days' siege; the Confederate general, Buckner, surrendering with the garrison. In April following, Grant, being at Pittsburg Landing, with his army, awaiting the arrival of General Buell's corps, was suddenly attacked by the Confederates, under Generals Beau'regard and Albert Sidney Johnston. The Southerners had made a forced march to surprise the enemy before the arrival of the expected reinforcements, and very nearly succeeded in the daring attempt, for they took part of the Federal camp, many cannon, and prisoners; but

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With what result? What was the first great battle of the war? What battle was next fought?—5. What was the situation during the first year of the war? What success was gained by General Grant in 1862? What occurred at Pittsburg Landing?

the darkness, for a time, put an end to the conflict, and during the night General Buell arrived. The tables were turned when the battle recommenced next morning. The Confederate forces, in their turn, were inferior in number, and worn with fatigue of the previous day. They were compelled to abandon the field, after losing some of the artillery taken in the first battle. The most stubborn valor was evinced in both fights, and the slaughter on both sides was terrific. The Confederates had to mourn the loss of one of their best and bravest generals, Albert Sidney Johnston. These conflicts are known as the first and second battles of Shiloh.

6. A few days after this disaster, the Confederacy received another damaging blow. Commodore Farragut's fleet, having succeeded in passing the forts at the mouth of the Mississippi, compelled the surrender of New Orleans, evacuated by General Lovell. The city was undefended, and General Butler, who arrived soon after the fleet, took quiet possession. By the fall of this important city, the Confederacy lost all hopes of controlling influence in the West, although they still prevented the free navigation of the Mississippi.

7. Whilst these events were happening in the Southwest, a Federal army of one hundred and twenty thousand, under General McClellan, was directed upon Richmond, Virginia, which had been made the capital of the Confederacy. This army, concentrated at Fortress Monroe, took up its march across the peninsula. The first obstacle they met was at the old city of Yorktown, famous in history as the place where Lord Cornwallis surrendered his army to Washington. This point had been strongly fortified by General Magruder, and, although he had but a small garrison, the imposing aspect of the works arrested General McClellan, when he arrived on the 4th of April, and gave time for the Army of Virginia, under General Joseph Johnston, to be sent hurriedly to Yorktown. McClellan commenced siege operations, and labored during the whole month of April; but just as he was ready for a general assault, Johnston evacuated Yorktown, May 3d, 1862. The invading army lost no time in pursuing the Confederate columns, and overtook them near Williamsburg. From that

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Relate the two battles of Shiloh.—6. What happened a few days later? What was the consequence, to the Confederates, of the fall of New Orleans?—7. What general marched on Richmond? What road did he take? What obstacle did he meet? What about the siege of Yorktown?

place to Richmond, the march was marked by a number of partial engagements, Johnston's policy seeming to have been to weaken the Federal army, by strategic movements calculated to delay them near the noxious swamps of the Chickahominy. At last General McClellan arrived almost in sight of Richmond, and then commenced the series of bloody conflicts known as the "seven days' fight." General Robert E. Lee had succeeded Johnston in command, the latter having been badly wounded, and now the Confederates took the offensive. Stonewall Jackson's corps, secretly recalled from northwestern Virginia, fell on McClellan's rear, and the pursuing army now became the pursued. General McClellan tried to reach the James river, where he hoped to establish a new base of operations, and General Lee strained every resource to cut him off. At last, General McClellan reached a strong position at Malvern Hill, and saved the remnant of his once fine army, for the continual losses, not merely by battle, but from disease, had terribly reduced its ranks.

8. The Confederates now sought to transfer the war to Northern soil. Lee drove back General Pope, and won the second battle of Manassas—or Bull Run—on the 30th of August. He entered Maryland, and was opposed by McClellan at Antietam, September 17th. This dreadful battle was a Federal success, and Lee fell back, on the following night, across the Potomac. The slaughter on both sides was terrible. In November, General Burnside took command of the Federal army, and commenced another march on Richmond. He met Lee at Fredericksburg, on December 13th, and was led on to attack the Confederate works near the city. Received by a fearful fire of infantry and artillery, his army was badly cut up, and compelled to evacuate Fredericksburg. During the same month the Confederates suffered a great reverse in Tennessee, in the loss of the battle of Murfreesboro. The Union forces were commanded by General Rosecrans, and the Confederates by General Bragg.

9. On the 1st of January, 1863, President Lincoln's famous Proclamation of Emancipation went into effect. It declared that all slaves in the states, or parts of states, "in rebellion

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How was the retreat of the Confederates conducted? What general took command of the Southern army? What occurred before Richmond? Where did General McClellan save his army?—8. What generals commanded at the second battle of Manassas? When was it fought? What about the battle of Antietam? The battle of Fredericksburg? What battle was fought in Tennessee?

BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

against the United States," should be free forever.* No important military movements took place until the spring, when General Hooker was put in command of the Federal Army of the Potomac. He met General Lee, on the 3d of May, at Chancellorsville, on ground of his own choosing, and gave him battle. The Federals were driven back across the Rappahannock, the Confederates retaining the dearly-bought field. This victory was overshadowed by the deepest gloom, for Stonewall Jackson, one of the most beloved and daring of Southern leaders, was accidentally killed, after the battle, by the fire of his own pickets, who, in the darkness, mistook his escort for the enemy.

10. The Confederates, struggling against dreadful odds, their ports blockaded, their soil overrun and devastated, resolved to make a supreme effort to transfer the scene of woe to Northern soil. For this purpose, General Lee once more crossed the Potomac, and marched northward, through Maryland and Pennsylvania. At Gettysburg, in the latter state, he met the Federals under General Meade. There was fought the most terrific battle of the war. It commenced on the morning of the 1st of July, and ended on the evening of the 3d. During these three days of carnage, victory seemed to waver between the contending armies; finally, General Lee, having lost one-third of his army, was compelled to withdraw from the conflict. He had lost nearly thirty thousand men in killed, prisoners, and stragglers. The Federals, also, had suffered to such an extent that they did not molest the retiring foe.

11. The adverse fortune which attended the Confederate arms in Virginia, was dealing them, at the same time, a crushing blow on the Mississippi river. The Southerners had fortified Vicksburg, Mississippi, and Port Hudson, Louisiana, thus shutting the navigation of the Mississippi and guarding the mouth of Red river, a valuable channel of communication with the trans-Mississippi department, whence they derived much of their important supplies. An expedition against Port Hudson was prepared in New Orleans by the combined army and fleet of General Banks and Commodore Far-

* From the effects of this proclamation, Tennessee as well as parts parts of Virginia and Louisiana were excepted.

9. What great battle was fought in May, 1863? With what success? What great general did the Confederates lose?—10. What was the condition of the Confederates after the battle of Chancellorsville? What did they resolve? What great battle was fought in Pennsylvania? With what result?—11. How about the state of affairs, at that time, on the Mississippi river?

ragut, while General Grant moved on Vicksburg. On the 14th of March, General Banks' advance engaged the Confederate pickets near Port Hudson; and on the same night, at eleven o'clock, Commodore Farragut's fleet attacked the river defences. The Commodore's flag-ship, Hartford, with another vessel, the Albatross, lashed to it, succeeded in passing the batteries under cover of the darkness, but the other vessels, severely crippled, had to abandon the attempt, and float down the stream. The steam frigate Mississippi, running aground opposite the batteries, was set on fire and burned to the water's edge. General Banks did not attack, but moved rapidly back to Baton Rouge, whence he crossed, some time later, into Western Louisiana, overran that country, and recrossed the Mississippi above Port Hudson. During the intervening period, the greater part of the garrison was ordered off to strengthen General Pemberton's army, which defended the approaches to Vicksburg, and when the events about to be recorded took place, in May, the garrison of Port Hudson was reduced to about five thousand men, under General Gardner. On the 8th of that month, the fleet came in view, and took a position some four miles below the town. Six mortar-boats and five vessels of war commenced the bombardment, which was to last until the end of the siege. On the 21st, General Banks completed the investment of Port Hudson.

12. Despatches now reached the Confederate commander, ordering the evacuation of Port Hudson. But it was too late. A council of war, summoned by the commander, took the following points into consideration: That General Grant, with superior forces, was pressing Pemberton in Vicksburg; that the junction of Banks' thirty thousand men with Grant's one hundred thousand would make the fall of Vicksburg certain; that the little garrison of Port Hudson, although hopeless of final success, could serve more effectually the Confederacy by detaining General Banks than by cutting their way through his forces. The officers resolved to accomplish the sacrifice, and the garrison, in pursuance of that resolution, held the place forty-eight days. Meanwhile, defeated at Black river, General Pemberton had retired into Vicksburg, with thirty thousand men. But, despairing of receiving aid from General Johnston, the department commander, he

Describe the naval attack. Where did General Banks operate afterwards? How was Port Hudson invested?—12. Why did the garrison resolve to defend the place? What were, meanwhile, General Pemberton's movements?

surrendered Vicksburg on the 4th of July, 1863. The astounding news reached Port Hudson on the 8th, and it having been officially communicated to General Gardner by General Banks, the former considered the further effusion of blood as unnecessary, and surrendered, with all the honors of war, on the 9th of July. There remained of the garrison but two thousand men fit for duty; their ammunition was exhausted, three-fourths of their guns dismounted, and they had been living for the past three weeks on half a pound of mule meat and three ears of corn daily to each man. On the very night of the 8th, after the terms of capitulation had been agreed upon, General Banks sent in four thousand rations to the famished garrison.

13. The resources of the South, both as to men and supplies, were now nearly exhausted. New levies were made, and the boys left their school-books to take their places by the side of gray-haired men; but it was only to protract the struggle in a doomed cause. The North, with her large population, and the flow of immigration from Europe, kept swelling the ranks of her armies, whilst, with her rich granaries, her arsenals, and manufactories, and her access to the ports of the whole world, she had inexhaustible sources of supplies. In 1864, she had six hundred thousand men in the field. General Sherman's Army of Tennessee took up its march from Chattanooga to Atlanta, Georgia, the great centre of railroad communication in the South. General Sigel occupied the Shenandoah valley, while two armies marched on Richmond and Petersburg, the key to its approach. Although General Johnston disputed the ground inch by inch, he could not stay General Sherman's triumphant march through the very heart of the Confederacy. His successor, General Hood, tried to divert the attention of Sherman, by moving into Tennessee; but the wily Federal commander did not change his plans. Hood nearly lost his whole army in an attack on Franklin. Meanwhile, Sherman did not winter at Atlanta, as was supposed to be his intention, but took up his march in the direction of the Atlantic coast, destroying the railroads, and burning the mills and the crops. He took Savannah, caused the evacuation of Charleston, the proud

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What was the fate of Vicksburg? Of Port Hudson?—13. What was the respective condition of the two contending parties at the close of 1863? With what forces did the North open the campaign of 1864, and what disposition was made of them? Describe Sherman's campaign and its results.

city which had held out for more than a year against fleet and army, overran the two Carolinas, leaving ruin and devastation behind him, and thus cut off the last scanty supplies for Lee's army.

14. Grant, now Lieutenant-General, in supreme command of the armies of the United States, had steadily pursued his plan of operations against Richmond. Battles had followed battles, with varying success; but whilst the Confederate forces were being slowly reduced, the Federal army kept increasing by continual reinforcements. The bloody battle of Five Forks, fought on the 1st of April, decided the result. Lee ordered the evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg, and commenced retreating, pursued by Grant. On the 9th of April, 1865, the shattered remnants of the Army of Virginia surrendered. This was the virtual ending of the war. The last hopes of the Confederacy had long been centred in that army, and generally where the news of its surrender reached the Confederate commanders, they ceased all resistance and laid down their arms. Officers and men were paroled and disbanded, in accordance with the terms of General Lee's surrender.

15. Only five days after the surrender of General Lee, a thrill of horror was sent throughout the land by the report of the assassination of President Lincoln, who was shot in Ford's Theatre, Washington. Mr. Lincoln had recently been reëlected for another term. Vice-President Andrew Johnson was now inaugurated President. Jefferson Davis, the President of the Southern Confederacy, was made prisoner, soon after the surrender, and taken to Fortress Monroe, where he was held in captivity until the spring of 1867, when he was released on bail without a trial; finally all proceedings against him were abandoned.

16. Once more the sun of peace shone on a hundred blood-stained battle-fields and a reunited country. The great Civil War was quelled. The authority of the Federal Government was undisputed from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. Over two millions of men had been engaged in the gigantic conflict, and more

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14. What was General Grant doing meanwhile? What battle hastened the end of the war? What happened on the 9th of April, 1865? What were the immediate consequences of the surrender?—15. What sent a thrill of horror throughout the land? Who was now inaugurated President? What is said of Jefferson Davis?—16. How many men were engaged in the Rebellion?

than half a million were killed or died of disease. At the end of the war the debt of the United States was $3,000,000,000. The Southern States were almost ruined. It took many a year to stop the bleeding wounds; even yet vast sums are annually paid out in pensions.

CHAPTER IX

THE NEW NATIONAL LIFE.

NO sooner was the tragedy of war over, than the slow and difficult work of reconstruction commenced. Slavery was abolished. An article was added to the Constitution, which made that evil system extinct forever. This, at least, was one result which Providence had mercifully brought out of a struggle whose avowed object was to establish slavery more firmly, and more widely to extend its boundaries.

2. As the eleven Southern States were left without legal State governments, their affairs were necessarily administered by the Federal authorities. Military governors were appointed, new constitutions adopted, and, finally, as time went on, the reconstructed states took their old places in the Union, and their Senators and Representatives were admitted to the National Capitol at Washington.

3. In 1867, the United States purchased from Russia her North American territory, for the sum of seven million two hundred thousand dollars. It is known as Alaska. In the same year Nebraska, the thirty-seventh state, was admitted to the Union. General Grant, as the candidate of the Republicans, was elected President in 1868. The Democratic candidate was Horatio Seymour, of New York. It was during President Grant's term of office that the "Alabama claims" came up for settlement. Confederate cruisers, which had been fitted out at British ports, had committed vast depredations on American commerce. The United States demanded

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How many were killed? What was the debt of the United States at the end of the war? What is remarked of the Southern States?

CHAPTER IX.—1. After the tragedy of war was over, what commenced? What was abolished? What is said of this result?—2. How were the affairs of the Southern States managed? What finally took place?—3. What did the United States purchase in 1867? What state was admitted? Who was elected to the Presidency? What claims were settled during Grant's administration?

compensation from England. After much delay and negotiation, the matter was finally left to a tribunal of arbitration, which, in 1872, placed the damages at $15,500,000. The sum was paid by the British government.

4. General Grant was reëlected by the Republicans in 1872. Bad treatment of the Indians occasioned numerous troubles and massacres. The Modocs, of Oregon, murdered General Canby in 1873, and in 1876 General Custer and his whole command fell victims to Sitting Bull and the red warriors of Montana. Dishonest agents of this Republic have often treated the Indians unjustly, and nearly everything has been taken away from the poor savage except the memory of countless wrongs.

5. In the spring of 1875, Pope Pius IX conferred a memorable honor on the Catholic Church of the United States. He raised Archbishop McCloskey, of New York, to the dignity of Cardinal.

6. The United States celebrated the one hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence in 1876. The anniversaries of the various battles, as they came around, were also duly commemorated. The Centennial year, however, was especially marked by the holding of a great International Exhibition at Philadelphia. Nearly all the great nations of the world were represented by their productions. The exposition opened in May and closed in November. It was visited by about ten millions of people, and it is worthy of note, that the only royal visitor was Dom Pedro, the learned and enlightened Catholic Emperor of Brazil. Colorado, the thirty-eighth state, was admitted to the Union during the Centennial year.

7. At the election of 1876, the Republican candidate for the Presidency was Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio; and the Democratic candidate for the same office was Samuel J. Tilden, of New York. A very close contest was followed by disputes as to how the electoral votes of certain states should be counted. An Electoral Commission, appointed by Congress, pronounced in favor of the Republican candidate; and in

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What sum was paid by the British government?—4. Who was reelected in 1872? What is said of the Indian troubles?—5. What happened in the spring of 1875?—6. What did the United States celebrate in 1876? What was held at Philadelphia? What is said of the visitors? What state was admitted this year?—7. What is remarked of the elections of 1876? What commission was appointed, and what was the result?

1877, Mr. Hayes took the oath of office as President of the United States. His administration was uneventful. The Presidential candidates in 1880 were General Winfield S. Hancock, of Pennsylvania, nominee of the Democratic party, and General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, nominee of the Republican party. General Garfield was elected, and filled the Presidential chair but a few months, when he fell mortally wounded by the bullet of a wretched assassin. He died after suffering with heroic fortitude for eleven weeks. Vice-President Arthur succeeded, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution.

8. A notable event in President Arthur's administration was the enactment by Congress of the Civil Service Law (1883). Its aim is to purify politics by bestowing political office on merit, in place of having it regarded as party spoils, to be given for party service, irrespective of merit. Though the law has been imperfectly administered, upon the whole it has substantially improved the public service.

9. In the election of 1884, the Democratic party was successful. Grover Cleveland, of New York, was chosen President, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, Vice-President, the defeated Republican candidate being James G. Blaine, of Maine.

At the beginning of Cleveland's administration occurred the death of General Grant (1885). The following year is noteworthy for the destruction of a large portion of Charleston, South Carolina, by an earthquake. It is more memorable still for an event ecclesiastical. In 1875, Pius IX conferred the dignity of Cardinal on Archbishop McCloskey, of New York. He having died, the honor was bestowed (June 7, 1886,) most worthily upon Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, a prelate who, to deep, unaffected piety, and distinguished ability, joins a temperament singularly amiable and attractive, and fine administrative talent. His own he rules with wisdom, and all people hold him in admiration. The political issue of the day was the tariff, the Republican party advocating high protective duties; the Democratic party, a tariff for revenue, with incidental protection. On this issue the election of 1888 was adverse to the Democrats. Benjamin Harrison, of Indi-

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What is said of the election of 1880? Of General Garfield? Who succeeded Garfield?—8. What event in President Arthur's administration? The aim of the Civil Service Law?—9. Result of election of 1884? What notable events in 1885 and 1886? What was the political issue of the day? Result of election of 1888 on this issue?

ana, was chosen President, and Levi P. Morton, of New York, Vice-President, the defeated candidate being Grover Cleveland. The Republicans, now in full control of the government, carried out their economic views by the passage of the celebrated McKinley Tariff bill of 1890.

10. In 1889 the Territories of North Dakota, South Dakota, and Washington were admitted into the Union as States. The next year Oklahoma was organized into a territory, out of the northwestern portion of the Indian domain; and the Territories of Idaho and Wyoming were admitted as States.

In 1892, relations with Chili became critical, growing out of unprovoked and murderous assaults on United States seamen at Valparaiso. An apology from Chili averted further trouble.

11. Towards the close of the Harrison administration a revolution in the Hawaiian Islands overthrew the monarchy. A provisional government was established under protection of the United States flag, and commissioners despatched to this country to treat for annexation. These islands, from their geographical position, are the key to the Pacific Ocean, both in a commercial and a naval sense; and though to annex them would be a radical departure from what has been the settled policy of the United States (that is, to avoid foreign acquisitions and whatever may tend to provoke foreign complications), yet a nation so powerful and still developing can scarcely decree its final limits. This policy, however, was reversed in 1893 by President Cleveland, during whose second administration the question remained in abeyance. But, as will be seen, the project of annexation was revived under his successor, President McKinley.

12. The election in 1892 (the tariff being still the issue) marked a political revolution. Grover Cleveland, by a decisive majority, was chosen President over Benjamin Harrison, the Republican candidate; Mr. Stevenson, of Illinois, was chosen Vice-President; and the political branches of the government, legislative and executive, for the first time in many years, passed into the hands of the Democratic party.

What bill did the Republicans pass?—10. What territories became states in 1889? What is Oklahoma? And of what was it a part? Give the cause of the trouble with Chili. How was further trouble averted?—11. When was the monarchy overthrown in the Hawaiian Islands? What followed upon its overthrow? Why are these islands so important?—12. What was the political issue in 1892? What was the result of the election?

13. There occurred in the year 1892 a notable event bearing on the shipping interests of the United States. Under the navigation laws (meant to encourage shipbuilding) no ship could be admitted to American registry unless constructed in this country. The result has been disastrous; for since ships can be built much cheaper abroad, steamship lines and the carrying trade of the world have passed almost wholly into the hands of other nations. But in 1892, the navigation laws were so far suspended as to admit the steamers City of Paris and City of New York to American registry—a little opening wedge, the beginning of the revival of our merchant marine, which, it is hoped, will reach, in the end, the supremacy it had in the early days of the Republic.

14. The navy, too, has within recent years been greatly strengthened. The work of reconstruction, begun in President Cleveland's first administration, was vigorously continued under that of President Harrison; and when the ships now in course of construction, or whose building has been provided for, are completed, the United States, in ocean armament, will stand fourth among the great nations.

15. An imposing naval display, and celebrations and festivities throughout the land commemorated (October, 1892,) the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, an event that was further signalized by the Columbian Exposition at Chicago, unfolding the progress, the best achievements of this country, and of the civilized world. It opened on the first of May and closed on the first of November, 1893. It was a splendid success, far surpassing all previous undertakings of the same character.

In 1893, the Pope appointed Archbishop Satolli permanent Apostolic Delegate to the United States. As the special representative of the Holy Father, his powers were extensive and his decisions absolute. In 1896, he was raised to the Cardinalate, his investiture taking place in the Baltimore Cathedral with most imposing pomp. He was succeeded by Mgr. Martinelli, O. S. A., who was promoted to the Cardinalate in the spring of 1901. He, in turn, was followed in office by Archbishop Falconio, the present efficient incumbent.

13. Relate what happened in 1892 in reference to the shipping of the United States. What will this, it is hoped, be the beginning of? —14. When was the work of reconstructing the navy begun? By whose administration continued?—15. What are the features of the Columbian celebration? Who is Archbishop Satolli? When was he appointed? What is said of his powers? Why and when was Mgr. Martinelli sent here?

16. In his inaugural address, March 4, 1893, President Cleveland announced a new tariff policy, and soon afterwards called Congress in extra session to consider a bill drafted in acordance with his views. This measure, the Wilson Bill, was passed on August 13th. In the meantime the manufacturing and commercial interests of the country raised a loud alarm, which brought on one of the worst financial panics and industrial crises the country has ever known, and from the effects of which it long suffered. Strikes and lockouts became general, and in the latter part of May, 1894, a vast army of idle workmen, led by J. S. Coxey, of Massillon, Ohio, marched to Washington to demand employment from the National Government. Serious rioting also took place in many localities.

On January 6, 1895, Utah was admitted into the Union as a State. During this and the following year the national debt was enormously increased by the issue of bonds to meet the tariff deficiency and the extravagance of Congress.

17. In 1895, considerable friction arose between this country and England over an old-time dispute between the latter country and Venezuela concerning the western boundary of British Guiana. The State Department in Washington insisted that the question be submitted to arbitration, to which England would not consent. Consequently, on December 17th, of that year, President Cleveland sent a special message to Congress announcing the British government's refusal to accept the mediation of the United States, and asking Congress to take proper action in the matter. England at first affected a tone of indignation and defiance, but Congress, without delay, provided for an independent commission of inquiry. Seeing that this country was in earnest, the London cabinet gradually receded from its position, and at last consented to arbitration. Then a joint commission was agreed upon and appointed. This commission met in Paris, in July, 1899, and, after hearing all the evidence and arguments on both sides, rendered a decision in accordance therewith.

The Presidential election of 1896 turned mainly on the currency question, the Democrats urging the free coinage of silver, and the Republicans opposing it. Major William McKinley, of Ohio, was the nominee of the latter, and William

16. What new policy did Cleveland announce in 1893? Who was Coxey? When did Utah become a State?—17. What is said of the Venezuela boundary dispute? How did the Presidential election of 1896 result?

Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, of the former. Not only was Major McKinley elected, but a Republican House of Representatives was also chosen. The new President was duly inaugurated on March 4, 1897, and almost immediately called Congress to meet in extra session, to enact a protective tariff law. This session lasted from early in April until near the end of July, when the Dingley Tariff Bill was passed and put at once into force.

18. In 1898, the United States waged the first foreign war in which they had been engaged for half a century. A large section of the inhabitants of Cuba had been in rebellion against Spain since February, 1895. A year later General Weyler took command of the Spanish forces on the island. He practised such cruelties, especially on the neutrals, whom he collected and starved in the towns, that a loud outcry in the name of humanity arose in this country, calling for the interference of our government. Our trade interests on the island also demanded such a course. To our demand, that the Spanish forces be withdrawn and the people left to govern themselves, Spain, late in 1897, answered with an illusory promise of home rule, and the recall of Weyler. In January following, one of our warships, the Maine, was sent to Havana harbor to protect our commerce and citizens. While at anchor there she was blown up, on the night of February 15th, and two hundred and sixty-six of her officers and crew killed. It has never been officially determined whether this disaster was the result of accident or design; but so great was the indignation which it aroused in this country that we would have gone to war at once had the government been prepared. But that interference by the United States was deemed imperative, was pointed out by the President in a special message which he submitted to Congress on April 11th. An ultimatum to this effect was sent to Spain on the 20th, in consequence of which the Spanish Minister at Washington withdrew the next day, which is, accordingly, regarded as the first day of the war, which, four days later, Congress officially declared to be in existence. The first prize was captured by the Nashville, on the 22d, and Havana and the neighboring seaport towns for a distance of fifty miles were blockaded. But, though many prizes were taken, scarcely any of the actual fighting took place there.

What national legislation in 1897?—18. What caused the recent war with Spain? When was it begun?

Our Pacific squadron was then at Hong Kong, in charge of Commodore Dewey. Required by British neutral obligations to leave there, he was directed to attack the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay, which he entered on the night of April 30th-May 1st. Being in front of the enemy at daybreak, with only seven vessels against eleven, he began, soon after five o'clock, the most complete naval victory on record, destroying the entire hostile fleet. He was at once made Rear-Admiral, and later on the rank of Admiral was revived in his favor. Later in May, Spain's home fleet, after a long and devious course from Cadiz, through the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea, entered the harbor of Santiago, where it was soon blockaded by the American flying squadron, under Commodore Schley.

Though army operations had been authorized by Congress on April 26th, yet it was only on June 22d that General Shafter was able to begin to land his forces on Cuban soil, at Daiquiri, sixteen miles east of Santiago harbor. From that point the advance towards Santiago began, with severe skirmishing on the way. On July 1st and 2d severe battles were fought within a short distance of the city, which was then invested. Early on Sunday morning, the 3d, the Spanish fleet made a dash to escape from the harbor, but was completely destroyed by the American squadron. Just two weeks later, July 17th, Santiago was in possession of the American forces.

A few days later an army set out to invade Porto Rico, and landed at Guanica on July 25th. Here the Americans were welcomed and conquest was easy. The only important place left unconquered when hostilities ceased was the city of San Juan, the capital.

The first official step to this end was taken on July 26th, and the peace protocol, signed on August 12th, was promulgated on the 13th. But that very day the city of Manila surrendered to the Americans, after a vigorous attack by General Merritt on land and Admiral Dewey from the bay. The treaty which followed, negotiated in Paris, provided for the independence of Cuba under temporary American protection, and the cession to the United States of Porto Rico

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What was its first great battle? When was Manila taken? When was Cuba invaded? When was the second great battle? When did Santiago surrender? When was Porto Rico invaded? What were the terms of peace?

and the Philippine Islands, a consideration of $20,000,000 to be paid for the latter.

But with this money we were purchasing another war. There had been a native rebellion, especially on the island of Luzon, and the rebels, who were encamped outside of Manila when our forces captured that city, claimed that we had gone there to make them an independent republic. Finding out that they were to be free only under American rule, they chafed, sullenly for a while, but with open dissatisfaction in the end. On the night of February 4, 1899, they began hostilities against us by attacking our lines on the north side of the city. From that time until the rainy season began in July there was almost continuous fighting, in which the Filipinos were uniformly repulsed, frequently with heavy losses. Yet this rebellion lasted more than two years. Its fugitive leader, Aguinaldo, was captured early in 1901. In this year, too, American civil government was instituted at Manila. Negotiations between Rome and Washington, regarding religious orders and Church property in the Philippines, effected a settlement that is regarded as mutually satisfactory.

In 1900, civil government was instituted in Porto Rico, which has been temporarily subjected to a very moderate tariff. In the summer of 1899 a terrible hurricane wrought infinitely more damage there than the war had done.

Cuba, too, has been placed under civil rule. A constitutional convention met in Havana in November, 1900, and completed its work in the following July. The instrument adopted acknowledges the suzerainty of the United States as laid down in the law of Congress known as the Platt amendment.

The Hawaiian Islands, where royalty was abolished by a revolution in January, 1893, and a constitutional republic set up on July 4, 1894, were formally annexed to the United States on August 12, 1898, in accordance with a treaty signed July 16, 1897. They now form an organized territory with a delegate in Congress.

In the Presidential election of 1900, McKinley and Bryan were again the leading candidates. The former was overwhelmingly reëlected, with Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, as Vice-President.

What followed in the Philippines? In Porto Rico? In Cuba? What of the Hawaiian Islands? The chief event of 1900?

During the summer of 1901, a Pan-American Exposition was held at Buffalo, N. Y. President McKinley, while holding a reception at this Exposition, on September 6, was shot by an anarchist. He died on the 14th, and on that day Mr. Roosevelt succeeded him as President.

The late President had treated the South with much consideration, and in winning the respect and confidence of that section had done more than any of his predecessors. Though not one of our great statesmen, Mr. McKinley was a leader of undoubted political sagacity, and of kindly and generous sentiments. He was beloved by men of every party. Had he been spared he would, no doubt, have been eminently successful in this most praiseworthy undertaking.

Without the slightest interruption of public affairs, the Vice-President, Theodore Roosevelt, succeeded to the office of Chief Magistrate. In assuming the Presidency, Mr. Roosevelt announced his intention of continuing the policy and retaining the Cabinet of his predecessor.

One of the first measures suggested by the new President was a law which made assaults upon the Chief Executive cognizable by the Federal Courts. Many other important recommendations were made in Mr. Roosevelt's first message. At that session, however, Congress did not pass many new laws.

Early in this administration there occurred among the anthracite mine workers of Pennsylvania a protracted strike. The miners demanded higher wages, fewer hours of labor, and a recognition by employers of the miners' union. Large enterprises were compelled to suspend work for lack of coal, and as winter was approaching, much suffering was certain to ensue. In these circumstances, the President felt that it was necessary to interfere. Very reluctantly the employers consented to submit the dispute to be arbitrated by a commission, which finally granted in substance the demands of the miners.

In December, 1902, upon the recommendation of the President, there was established a Department of Commerce and

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What great tragedy occurred at Buffalo in September, 1901? In what praiseworthy work was President McKinley engaged during his administration? Who succeeded him in the Presidential office? What law was passed soon after the accession of President Roosevelt? What serious strike occurred at this time? What caused the President to interfere? When was the Department of Commerce and Labor created?

Labor. One of its subdivisions, the Bureau of Corporations, collects information to enable the President to enforce intelligently the statutes against trusts. Another measure of that time, which was directed against trusts, was the Elkins law. In the enforcement of these statutes, the President was supported by Congress.

A dangerous controversy with Great Britain over the Alaska boundary was settled in London, on October 18, 1903, by commissioners appointed by both powers. A dispute with Mexico was satisfactorily adjusted by arbitration. The example of the United States in this instance will, without doubt, exert considerable influence in favor of this method of settling international controversies. Thus were our foreign relations improved. On the other hand, the public service was purified by a thorough investigation of the Post Office Department. As a result of this scrutiny, an ex-member of Congress was sentenced to imprisonment and to the payment of a heavy fine, while several officials in the Department were convicted.

Of all the laws enacted during this administration, perhaps the most important was the act authorizing the construction of a ship canal across the isthmus, connecting North and South America. At different times since the accession of John Quincy Adams, this project has been considered by the people of the United States. Indeed, a provision of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, of 1850, had reference to this subject.

A French company, organized to dig a canal between Panama, on the Pacific coast, and Colon, on the opposite side, was declared bankrupt after having expended $250,000,000. A new company was then organized, and by June, 1889, had, it was estimated, completed two-fifths of the work. Some work on the Nicaragua route had been done by Americans, but they encountered unexpected difficulties. At this point the reorganized Panama Canal Company offered to sell to the United States for $40,000,000 all its rights and property.

In June, 1902, Congress empowered the President to accept this offer, provided a satisfactory title could be obtained, and to complete the canal at a cost not to exceed $120,000,000.

What is the Bureau of Corporations? How were our foreign relations improved? What Department was investigated? What was the most important law enacted during this administration? How did the United States acquire the rights and property of the French Panama Canal Company? What was the action of Congress with respect to the construction of the canal?

For the necessary concessions the United States offered generous compensation to the government of Colombia. Under the belief that a much larger sum could be obtained, that government failed to ratify the proposed treaty. This action was the signal for a revolt in Panama, and the establishment there of a separate state. On November 3, 1903, the people of the province of Panama proclaimed their independence, and set up a republican form of government. Of course, Colombia would have endeavored to suppress this insurrection, but the United States ships of war prevented any military or naval interference with the plans of the new state. Its independence was promptly recognized by our government, and a treaty soon concluded which contained the concessions necessary to a completion of the canal. In return, the United States guaranteed the independence of Panama. At this stage of the controversy Colombia was willing to concede, free of cost, all that the United States had asked, provided she were allowed to reassert her sovereignty over her lost province. The Colombian envoy was informed, however, that it was now too late.

The new republic promptly accepted the $10,000,000 which had been offered to Colombia; also, a perpetual annuity of $250,000, beginning nine years from the date of ratifying the treaty. In return, our government secured jurisdiction over a zone of territory five miles wide on each side of the canal, and any other lands necessary for its construction and maintenance.

The Panama policy of President Roosevelt was denounced by many Democratic Senators; nevertheless, the treaty was approved by a vote of 66 to 14. Many Senators of that party were instructed by their States to support the treaty, and fourteen of them did so. By endeavoring to raise new complications in Europe, Colombia sought to place further embarrassments in the way of the work, but these efforts came to naught. The completion of the canal will shorten the water route between New York and San Francisco by about nine thousand miles; the distance by the present route being four-

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How did Colombia receive the offer of the United States? What was the effect on the people of Panama? What was the attitude of the United States? How did the republic of Panama come into existence? Has the United States the jurisdiction over any territory in that region? Was the ratification of the Panama treaty a party measure? What will be the commercial advantage of the completed canal?

teen thousand. However political parties in the United States may regard our interference in the affairs of Colombia, the completion of the canal will be of immense benefit to commerce.

While serving the unexpired term of President McKinley, Mr. Roosevelt had demonstrated his own qualifications for the Presidency. In 1904, he was nominated by the Republican party. Associated with him on the ticket was Charles W. Fairbanks, the Vice-Presidential nominee. The Democratic party placed in nomination as their candidates, Judge Alton B. Parker and Henry G. Davis. By his letter of acceptance, and some months later by a strong speech, Mr. Roosevelt improved greatly the Republican chances of success. At that moment his popularity was probably greater than that of any leader since Lincoln. On November 8th, his party chose three hundred and forty-three electors, as against one hundred and thirty-three for Mr. Parker. President Roosevelt carried several border states, and four states which, on that day, had chosen Democratic governors. The popular endorsement of his administration was overwhelming. There remained to the Democracy only twelve commonwealths, all of them in the South.

On December 6, 1904, President Roosevelt sent to Congress one of the most remarkable of state papers. It was long, comprehensive, and discussed with ability a great number of important questions. In his endeavor to regulate railway rates, and to advance the cause of arbitration, however, he was thwarted by the Senate.

Prosperity almost unparalleled marked the beginning of the year 1907; at its close business was greatly depressed. Many factories were running on half time, and multitudes were out of employment. In October there was a perfect panic, which swept banks and trust companies into the hands of receivers. Though the Treasury adopted measures of relief, there was a recurrence of the panic a few months later. By the beginning of 1908, however, financial conditions were almost normal.

In his message of December 6, 1906, to Congress, Presi-

What led to the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt? Who was the candidate of the Democratic party? What was implied in the election of Mr. Roosevelt? What is said of the condition of business at the beginning of 1907? What toward the end of that year? When was the financial condition restored?

dent Roosevelt lauded the Japanese, and scolded the people of California for the exclusion, by the San Francisco School Board, of the children of Japanese parents. As the result of a conference between some of the municipal authorities and the President, the prohibition was withdrawn. An agitation for the total exclusion of Japanese then commenced, and though for the time it was set at rest, it threatens to revive.

It was about this time, and, perhaps, not wholly unconnected with the disturbed relations with Japan, that practically every battle ship in our navy was ordered into the Pacific. Our government disclaimed any intention of challenging Japan, and insisted that the movements of these vessels was no more than "a practice cruise." However that may be, the fleet was enthusiastically welcomed in San Francisco. Later it visited the East; was cordially received in Japan, and much more warmly welcomed in Australia. Returning by way of the Suez Canal, some vessels of the fleet assisted the victims of the Italian earthquake, and finally sailed for home, arriving at Hampton Roads on February 22, 1909. Aspects of the Japanese question still give rise to discussion, though at present there seems to be no danger of a war with that power.

On November 16, 1907, Oklahoma was admitted into the Union as the forty-sixth state. Less than twenty years before it was practically unsettled, and almost entirely given over to cattle grazing. At the time of its admission its population was one million four hundred and eight thousand seven hundred and thirty-two. In area it is large, and its resources are great.

One of the most important social movements of that time, 1907, was the temperance wave that swept over the United States. The sale of liquor has been prohibited by law in several states, and others are adopting similar measures. The success of the prohibition element has been unexpected. At the present moment, the indications point to the adoption of a prohibition policy in all, or nearly all the States.

In his message of December 3, 1907, President Roosevelt discussed a great variety of measures. Much space was given

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What important item was contained in the President's message? How was the San Francisco school difficulty settled? What agitation followed? Describe the voyage of our navy around the world. Is the Japanese question completely settled? What is said of the forty-sixth State? What was the great social movement of 1907? Was the success of the prohibition movement expected?

to the matter of the Federal control of corporations. Laws on this subject, he believed, should be more stringent. Federal income and inheritance taxes were recommended, as was also the establishment of machinery for the compulsory investigation of industrial disputes.

On June 16, 1908, at Chicago, the Republican National Nominating Convention selected as its candidates William H. Taft, for President, and James S. Sherman, for Vice-President. The Democratic Convention, which was held at Denver, Colorado, nominated William J. Bryan and John W. Kern as its candidates. In the November election the Republican ticket was successful.

By virtue of a treaty with the Dominican Republic, President Roosevelt appointed a receiver for the customs of that government; the proceeds to be applied to the payment of its debts. New debts could not be contracted, nor the customs laws of the country changed without the consent of the President of the United States.

Since they ceased to be subjects of Spain, the people of Porto Rico have been without a nationality. This condition led President Roosevelt to recommend that the rights of American citizenship be conferred upon them. Congress, however, has thus far failed to act in the matter.

During the year 1907, a legislature was selected for the local government of the Philippine Islands. Less than one and five-tenths per cent. of the population voted on that occasion. In another connection will be told the nature of our relations to the republic of Cuba.

To redeem campaign promises made by the Republican platform, President Taft convoked Congress in special session for the purpose of revising the existing tariff laws. That work it is still engaged in considering.

What important matter was mentioned in President Roosevelt's message of December 3, 1907? What kinds of taxes were recommended? How were industrial disputes noticed in the message? What was done by the Chicago Republican convention? Who were the nominees of the Democratic party? Which candidates were chosen? What is our relation to the Dominican Republic? What did President Roosevelt recommend for the people of Porto Rico? Has Congress acted in the matter? What occurred in the Philippines in 1907? What is the business of the special session of Congress?

BOOK XVIII

OTHER COUNTRIES

OTHER AMERICAN COUNTRIES

1. Canada.—Immediately north of us lie British possessions more extensive than the United States without Alaska, but, on account of their cold climate, for the most part not very important as yet. There are the island of Newfoundland, with its dependency, Labrador, and the provinces forming the Dominion of Canada. Parts of British America are even now rapidly developing.

Some historians pretend that John Cabot and his second son, Sebastian, in the name of England, entered the St. Lawrence river about the year 1497; this statement, however, has been disputed, though it cannot be denied that they sailed along the American coast. Between that time and 1534 several other explorers approached the Canadian shores. But it was only in this year that any definite steps towards possession of the country was taken, when Jacques Cartier, a pilot from St. Malo, in Brittany, entered the *Baie des Chaleurs,* and claimed the country in the name of France. In a second voyage he ascended the St. Lawrence river, first as far as the present site of Quebec, and then to the Indian village of Hochelaga, on the present site of the city of Montreal. For a long time, however, this possession was only nominal, until, in fact, the French began to establish regular colonies there in 1608.

In this year Samuel de Champlain, a nobleman of southern France, whose name is perpetuated in the great lake between New York, New England, and Canada, founded the city of Quebec, which became the capital of the vast territory

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How large is British North America? Who were its earliest European explorers? When, where, and by whom was French colonization begun on the St. Lawrence? What of Champlain's discovery and policy?

afterwards known as New France. With him came Récollet, and afterwards Jesuit missionaries, who worked heroically among the Indians, converting many, especially of the Huron and neutral tribes. But Champlain, who also discovered Lake George, which he called the Lake of Blessed Sacrament, made the mistake of siding with the Hurons against the Iroquois, thus alienating the latter from the French and from the Church, whose apostles they afterwards tortured and put to death. Quebec was captured by the English in 1629, but was restored to France three years later.

In 1641, Montreal was founded, and twenty years later the famous French Minister of State, Colbert, gave the colony its first constitution. This instrument was feudal in its character, and so remained until the time of George IV, of England. But in spite of this, the colony prospered, though with occasional wars against the English colonists and the Iroquois, until hostilities broke out afresh between England and France in 1755. Quebec, after a brave defence, and a defeat in the battle on the Plains of Abraham, surrendered to the English on September 18, 1759; Montreal fell a little later. All of New France became English by capitulation in 1761, and the cession was confirmed in 1763 by the treaty of Paris, which secured religious equality to French and English alike. As Acadia, now forming Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, had belonged to England since 1713, France was without a colony on the Atlantic coast of America.

But disputes arose between the English and French settlers, which resulted in the English Parliament passing the Quebec Act of 1774, not only confirming, but extending the religious liberty clause of the treaty of Paris. It was this act that kept the Canadians from taking part in the war of American Independence, which, in its beginning, was prompted by an anti-Catholic spirit. Americans regarded the Quebec Act as a grievance against England. The elective principle was introduced into Canada in 1791, when the country was divided into two provinces, Lower Canada (Quebec) and Upper Canada (Ontario), each having its separate government, though both were exactly alike. The executive power was vested in a governor and a lieutenant-governor, assisted by an executive council, appointed and revocable by the crown. The legislative power was entrusted to a council of life members,

When was first English capture of Quebec? When was Montreal founded? How and when did New France become English? What of the Quebec Act? And constitution of 1791?

chosen by the king, seven for Upper and fifteen for Lower Canada, and a representative assembly elected for four years by a limited franchise. The assent of all three bodies was necessary for the enactment of laws. The plan worked well for a while, but in time caused an excited agitation that in 1837 broke out in insurrection in both provinces. This uprising was quickly suppressed, but the agitation continued, and resulted in the new constitution of July 3, 1840, by which the two provinces were reunited under a governor-general and cabinet, with a united Parliament also, though each province retained its own local legislature. Intended to suppress French influence, the scheme did not succeed in this respect; but it worked so well in every other way that it led to the federation of 1867, which now embraces all the British provinces except Newfoundland. In 1859, a contest for the capital arose among the cities of Quebec, Montreal, Toronto, and Kingston. A compromise was reached by selecting Ottawa, a border town of good strategical position.

The Dominion Act was passed by the British Parliament on March 29, 1867, and went into effect on July 1st following. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia at once joined the federation. After a rebellion, led by one Riel, in the Red River country, the province of Manitoba was organized and joined in 1870; British Columbia did the same in 1871, and, in 1873, Prince Edward Island. As to Newfoundland, of which Labrador is a dependency, the legislature voted for union, but the people, in 1869, voted against it by an overwhelming majority. The rest of the Dominion was known as the Northwest Territory, which had been purchased by the Hudson Bay Company, to which Manitoba also had belonged. In 1882, the provinces of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabaska were formed out of the portion of the Northwest Territory lying between Manitoba and British Columbia. Another rebellion in the northwest, also led by Riel, was put down in 1885, and its leader put to death. The only other war troubles that Canada has had were two Fenian raids from the United States, in 1866 and 1870, which were easily repelled.

Shortly after the Federation Act had gone into effect charges of flagrant corrupt practices were freely made against the Conservatives, the party then in power, whose leader, Sir

Rebellion of 1837 and its outcome? When did Ottawa become the capital? When was the Dominion Act passed? What are the provinces of the Dominion?

Laurier & Macdonald, was implicated in them, tried, and convicted. The act to secure electoral reform in 1873, when the Liberals came into power. A few years later the Conservatives once more gained the ascendency, and retained control until 1896. In the meantime the whole Dominion had been agitated by the action in Manitoba of the separate school system, which had originated in Quebec, and the substitution for it of compulsory secular education only. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, leader of the Liberals, and now premier, promised a measure of remedy, but has not yet reached it.

Minor disagreements have from time to time arisen between Canada and the United States in regard to tariff regulations and fishery rights; and lately an old contention has been revived in regard to the exact eastern boundary of Alaska, which has become important by reason of the discovery of very rich deposits of gold in the region of the Klondike.

2. Mexico. The Spanish viceroyalty of Mexico was the richest European possession in the New World, with the exception of that of Peru. It originally included the West Indies and Central America. But the last named territory was detached from it in the eighteenth century, and erected into the viceroyalty of Guatemala. The deposition of the Bourbon dynasty in Spain, by Napoleon in 1808, and the tyranny of the Spanish officials in the American colonies, led to revolt in all of them.

The first rebellion in Mexico broke out at Querétaro in 1810, and was led by a priest named Hidalgo. It was for a time successful, but was at last suppressed and the leaders were shot. Its embers, however, smouldered until 1821, when the conflagration of revolt broke out afresh. The rebels this time were led by a young Spanish army officer, named Iturbide, and his colleague, Guerrero, who marched on the city of Mexico, where the last Spanish viceroy was forced to give his adhesion to the rebellion. Iturbide, whose original aim was to erect an independent empire under the rule of a Spanish Bourbon prince, was himself made Emperor in June, 1822. But as there had been a strong republican party from the beginning, this faction soon gained the upper hand, deposed him, and put him to death the following year, and formed a republic with one of the leaders, Victoria, as President. He

Electoral reform of 1873? What difficulties between Canada and the United States?—2. What of the Spanish viceroyalty of Mexico? When did it first rebel against Spain? Who was Iturbide? How long was the new republic peaceful?

ruled until 1828, and during his term the country was prosperous. But in the last year civil war broke out, and continued with but little intermission for many years. General Santa Anna made himself dictator, and held the chief power until 1854, when he was deposed.

During his tyrannical rule Mexico lost by far the greater part of its original territory. In the first place, Texas revolted in 1836, and after a bloody war achieved its independence. Nine years later it was admitted as a state of the Union, and brought with it a dispute with Mexico about its western boundary, which dispute led to the Mexican war of 1846-48. Then, in the second place, in consequence of this war, Mexico was forced not only to admit the claim of Texas, but to cede California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico to the United States.

The deposition of Santa Anna was followed by the adoption of the reform constitution of 1857, which brought on the "Reform War," lasting from that year until 1860. Out of this struggle came into power Juarez, a full-blooded civilized Indian. Under his rule France interfered in the internal affairs of Mexico in 1861, and in 1863 made the Grand Duke Maximilian, of Austria, Emperor of the country. Affairs in Europe and the protest of the United States at last forced the French Emperor to withdraw his troops. Rebellion broke out again under Juarez, who defeated Maximilian and put him to death by shooting, at Querétaro in 1867. Then Juarez and the constitution of 1857 were reinstated in power. Dissatisfaction with the successor chosen after his death led to the rebellion and brief civil war of 1877, in which Porfirio Diaz was the leader of the rebels. He made himself President, and, with the exception of a single term, has held the office ever since. Under his rule the country has been peaceful and prosperous, considerable attention having of late years been paid to the development of its natural resources.

Between 1884 and 1907, there was completed in Mexico an important series of internal improvements. One railway connected Paso del Norte and another connected Laredo with the capital. In 1892, two other lines were built between cities in other parts of the republic. The system of com-

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What of Santa Anna's rule? The revolt of Texas? The Mexican war? What followed the downfall of Santa Anna? Who was Juarez? Maximilian? How did President Diaz come into power? The present state of the country? What internal improvements were completed in Mexico between 1884 and 1907?

munication was further improved by the inauguration, in 1907, of the Tehuantepec Railway. For the prosecution of some of these works money was borrowed in London.

One enterprise, the drainage of the valley of Mexico, had baffled every administration since the time of Cortes; this was accomplished, however, by President Diaz in 1900. Two years later the port of Vera Cruz, which had always been an open and dangerous roadstead, was made a safe and commodious harbor.

By a law of May 6, 1904, the constitution was so modified as to provide for the election of a Vice-President at the same time that the President is chosen. This amendment removes from Mexican political life a source of danger and uncertainty. It was further provided, that the President's term be extended from four to seven years, a change which adds greatly to the stability of public policy. In the following year there was created a new Cabinet position, that of Minister of Public Instruction and Fine Arts.

When General Diaz was chozen President for a seventh term, December 1, 1904, Señor Ramon Corral was elected to the Vice-Presidency. The successive administrations of the former have been marked by orderly and continuous progress in almost every line. In 1876, the population of the Republic was nine million three hundred and eighty thousand four hundred and thirty-nine, whereas, in 1908, it was estimated at fifteen million. This is unmistakable proof of the prosperity of Mexico.

In her foreign relations, Mexico has been equally fortunate. There was, however, during the fourth term of President Diaz, 1892-1896, a serious boundary dispute with Guatemala. When war appeared imminent the Mexican army was in part mobilized. At that stage Guatemala yielded; and a treaty in 1895 settled the controversy. Mexico was the only Latin-American state represented at The Hague Peace Conference in 1899. With the United States the most cordial relations exist. Our sister republic not only maintains order within her own limits, but is assisting along the same lines her turbulent neighbors in Central America.

What constitutional change was made in 1904? What will be the probable effect of this amendment? What has been the character of the administration of President Diaz? What has been the increase of population since 1876? What has been the nature of Mexico's foreign relations?

Perhaps Mexico's greatest achievements have been in the difficult field of public finance. Important measures were inaugurated as far back as the second presidency of General Diaz, when, on June 22, 1885, was passed a law which provided for the adjustment of Mexico's debt. If the national credit was to be established, this was indispensable. The execution of the measure proved the honesty of the government. Throughout Europe the effect was excellent, and afterwards prominent bankers stood ready to invest in Mexican enterprises. For subsidies to railway companies, money was borrowed in Berlin. The improvement in fiscal affairs was due chiefly to the ability of Señor Limantour, whose policy saved much to the treasury. By economy in public expenditures, and in other ways, his system produced in 1894-95 what was unknown in the financial history of Mexico—a substantial surplus.

Chiefly to a vicious system of interior custom houses, Adam Smith ascribed the decline of Spain. The *alcabalas* had long embarrassed Mexican trade also; these were reformed without any sort of disturbance, and the measure was successful, though it was accomplished after a severe panic, resulting from a decline in silver and a succession of bad harvests.

The achievement proved the ability of the minister, and the efficiency as well as the recuperative power of the government. The people of Mexico have much reason to face the future with hope and confidence.

3. Central America.—The five states of Central America, namely, Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, belonged to the viceroyalty of Mexico from the time of their settlement until the eighteenth century, when they were detached to form that of Guatemala. Revolutionary movements began in this region in 1811, but independence was achieved only in 1823, when the five states formed a federal union. Owing to disorders and discords this union was dissolved ten years later, and since then all of them have continued independent of one another, though many attempts

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What may be expected to result from the establishment of order in that country? What is said of public finance in Mexico? Who was responsible for the improvement in Mexico's fiscal affairs? Under what conditions was his policy carried out? What did his achievement prove?—3. What of Central America in Spanish colonial times? When did it become independent? How long united? How many states and what are their names? Their political character?

have been made to reunite all or some of them. In each there have been frequent political revolutions and dictatorships. And even now, not one of them can be said to have a stable government. The most prosperous are San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Guatemala. In 1850, England resigned a claim to the Mosquito Coast, on the east side of Nicaragua and Honduras, which she had set up in 1665; but she retained, and still retains Belize, or British Honduras.

4. Colombia.—This commonwealth was in the early Spanish times a part of the viceroyalty of Peru, but became that of New Grenada in 1740, with which Quito and Venezuela were joined later. The first uprising here against Spain, following that of Venezuela, took place in 1811. It was crushed; but there was another in 1819, when Simon Bolivar, a Venezuelan by birth, the Washington of Spanish South America, by his victory at Bozaca on August 7th, opened his way to the capital. In the following December, Venezuela and New Granada formed one republic, with Bolivar as President. Ecuador was annexed soon afterwards. This union was dissolved in 1831, after which there was restlessness, struggle, and revolution for a long time, the constitution having been often changed. A federal constitution was adopted in 1861, and the United States of Colombia given as the official name of the country. The present constitution dates back only to 1886, since which time even there have been military and other uprisings. This country is among the least prosperous in South America. The narrative of events in the United States has told in detail the loss of Colombia's important province of Panama. By a State with any capacity for administration, that loss and that humiliation could have been avoided.

5. Venezuela.—No Spanish possession in America was so much neglected as this one. After having been farmed out to a German commercial house by the Emperor Charles V, who was also king of Spain, it was ruled by captains-general, who later on were partly controlled by the viceroys of New Grenada. It was one of the first colonies to revolt against Spain in 1810, and it declared its independence the following year.

Which are the most prosperous? What of the Mosquito Coast? Of Belize?—4. How was Colombia governed in Spanish colonial times? When did it first revolt, and when achieve independence? Was it always separate, as now? When so? What has been its political character since? When was its present constitution adopted? What is its character?—5. What of the early history of Spanish Venezuela? When did it first rebel?

The movement of that time, of which Miranda was the leader, failed, partly owing to an earthquake, by which Caracas and other cities were destroyed on March 26, 1812. But war broke out afresh, under the leadership of the celebrated Simon Bolivar, a native Venezuelan, and the country united with New Grenada in 1819. On June 25, 1821, Bolivar won a great victory at Carabobo, which broke the power of Spain. In 1830, Venezuela seceded from the union with New Grenada. Except for transient revolts, and a much more serious one in 1848-49, the country enjoyed peace until 1859, when a civil war broke out, resulting, after four years, in the overthrow of the government. General Falcon then succeeded to the Presidency, and after him Guzman Blanco. There have been frequent disturbances since, with a fiercely-fought revolution in 1892, when President Andueza Palacio was overthrown by General Joaquin Crespo, who then became President. A new constitution was adopted in 1894. A dispute with England of many years' standing, concerning the western boundary of British Guiana, was settled in 1899 by an International Arbitration Commission, at the request of the United States.

Since then the administration of Venezuelan affairs has been marked by a succession of blunders. These have been chiefly, though not entirely, of an international character. President Castro's dictatorial policy has been responsible for the difficulties in which this republic has become involved. There were old quarrels with France, Colombia, the United States, and Great Britain. To these new ones have been added. Holland resented the attitude of Venezuela, and sent war ships to patrol its coast. Diplomatic relations with the United States have been completely severed. Late in the year 1908, Castro went to Europe for surgical treatment; an insurrection took place in his absence, and from the confusion Gomez emerged as President. Castro, however, is on the coast of South America. If he can collect his partisans, there will be more years of disgrace and humiliation for that unfortunate republic. Matters have improved somewhat under Gomez.

For the second time and under whom? With what country united after independence? When did it secede? When occurred its first great civil war? When its second? Who then became President? What dispute with England? What is said of the administration of the Venezuelan government? Who is responsible for its foreign policy? What occurred in the absence of Castro? How has President Gomez conducted the government?

6. The Three Guianas.—East of Venezuela, fronting on the Atlantic, are the only three possessions on the South American mainland still owned by European powers. These are, in the order of possession, from northwest to southeast, British Guiana, Dutch Guiana, and French Guiana. Strange to say, the British portion was originally Dutch, and the Dutch portion originally British. But few settlements were made east of the Orinoco until the Dutch made the first attempt on that coast in 1581, and the English and the French a little later. All were failures, and the last two repeatedly abandoned the enterprise. The Dutch returned in 1596 to what is now British Guiana, gained a foothold there, and gradually spread along the coast. In 1796 these colonies were taken by England, but given back to Holland in 1802, and retaken in 1803. This last seizure was confirmed by the treaty of Paris in 1816. The western boundary was in dispute with Venezuela until 1899. The present Dutch Guiana was settled by the English in 1652, but given to the Netherlands in 1667, in exchange for the New Netherlands, or New York. It was taken by the British in 1799, given back to Holland in 1802, and again in British hands from 1804 to 1816, when it again became a Dutch possession. The French made their first attempt to settle their Guiana as early as 1604, and again in 1624; but it was only in 1634 that Cayenne was founded. But all these attempts proved disastrous, and the country was as often given up. It was in the hands of the Dutch from 1654 to 1664, ravaged by the English in 1667, and again by the Dutch in 1676. In 1763, fifteen thousand colonists set out from France, thirteen thousand of whom died within two years. During the French Revolution six hundred Royalists and political prisoners were sent to Cayenne, where two-thirds of them perished. The colony was taken by England in 1809, and restored to France in 1816. It is now a French penal settlement. Its present population consists mostly of negroes and Asiatics, with a few Indians.

7. Ecuador.—This country was a part of the Peruvian Empire at the time of the Spanish conquest by Pizarro, after which it belonged to the Peruvian viceroyalty. It rebelled

6. What was the origin of British Guiana? How and when did it become English? Who first settled Dutch Guiana? When and how did Holland get it? Its vicissitudes and final destiny? What of the early efforts of the French in Guiana? What powers ravaged Cayenne? What happened in 1763? And during the French Revolution? Who principally inhabit it now?—7. What of Ecuador's colonial history?

unsuccessfully against Spain in 1809 and 1812; and again in 1820, supported this time by Bolivar, whose lieutenant, General Sucre, defeated the Spaniards at Pichincha, on May 24, 1822. It was then united with Colombia and Venezuela. In 1831 it seceded, taking its present name, with Juan José Flores as its first President, who ruled until 1845. Then political squabbles and revolutions ensued, and scarcely a President was able to serve out his full term. There was a short war with Peru in 1859, and about that time Garcia Moreno, the President, interfered in the affairs of Colombia. He was assassinated in 1875, though the country had been exceptionally prosperous under him. Under Antonio Flores (1888-92), and his successor, Luis Condero, the country made some progress. The latter was driven from office and from the country in 1896, by a radical revolution, but his leaders still hold sway. Under President Alfaro the country is enjoying a period of prosperity.

8. Peru.—This country was the centre of the great Peruvian empire of the Incas, which was conquered by Pizarro in 1532. Three years later he founded the city of Lima, which he made the capital of his viceroyalty, which became the most valuable of the Spanish possessions. It embraced at first all of Spanish South America and Panama, but that of New Grenada was detached in 1718, and La Plata in 1776. A formidable Indian rebellion was suppressed in 1781. It was the last region to throw off the Spanish yoke, as its independence was declared at Lima only on July 28, 1821, and secured by the victory of Ayacucho, December 9, 1824. Bolivar's rule in Peru ended in 1827. After that time, under military rulers, the country was distracted by civil wars. Santa Cruz, President of Bolivia, interfered and conquered Peru in 1835-36, uniting the two countries; but Gamarra and other malcontents, aided by Chili, overthrew him in 1839, and restored the old order. Gamarra was then made President. He invaded Bolivia, and was defeated and killed in 1841. A firm government was finally established by Ramon Castilla in 1845. His successor, Echenique, was deposed after a civil war in 1855, and Castilla again became President, ruling until 1862. Prado, by a bloodless revolution, usurped the

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Its first revolts? When independent? When a separate republic? How long peaceful? What of Garcia Moreno? Its latest revolution? —8. When was Peru conquered by the Spaniards? Chief events of its colonial history? When did it revolt against Spain? Its last battle for independence? Its first President? What happened in 1835-36? In 1839? In 1841? In 1845? In 1855?

Presidency in 1865, but was deposed in 1868. Meanwhile a Spanish fleet, sent to enforce supposed claims, had been repulsed at Callao, on May 2, 1866. Extravagance increased the public debt, and payment was suspended in 1876. Then came, in 1879, a disastrous war with Chili, about the coast-line, in which Peru and Bolivia were utterly defeated on land and sea. Lima was taken by the Chilians on January 17, 1881. The following year Chili's claims were granted by both northern republics ceding coast provinces. A civil war for the Presidency between Caceres and Iglesias resulted in favor of the latter, who became President on December 1, 1885. Then there was comparative peace until March, 1894, when another civil war broke out over the succession to President Bermudez, on the eve of a new election. Ex-President Caceres tried to usurp the office, and was opposed by those in legal authority, who favored ex-President Pierola. A desultory war ensued and lasted into the following year, early in which Pierola besieged the capital and captured it on March 17th, 18th, and 19th, in perhaps the fiercest battle recorded in South American history. Peace was concluded on March 21st, and in the election that followed Pierola was chosen President. Peace has since prevailed, though there have been occasional uprisings. In May, 1908, Augusto B. Leguia was chosen President.

9. Bolivia. — Conquered in 1538 by Hernando Pizarro, brother of the victor of Peru, this country was at first subject to the viceroy of Peru, but placed under that of Buenos Ayres in 1776. It revolted against Spain in 1809, but was then crushed, as were its allies from Buenos Ayres, in 1811-15, and from Peru in 1821. But its independence was achieved after the great victory of Ayacucho, in Peru. The country was then called Chacas. It was declared by Bolivar an independent state in 1825, and received its present name in honor of him. General Sucre was the first President, but was obliged to resign in 1828, when he was succeeded by Marshal Andres Santa Cruz, who interfered in the affairs of Peru in 1835. In 1836 a federal republic was formed, consisting of North Peru, South Peru, and Bolivia, which was overthrown in 1839. Two years later President Gamarra of

In 1865? In 1866? What caused the financial crisis of 1876? What was the result of the war with Chili? The civil war of 1885? That of 1894-95? Since then?—9. How was Bolivia ruled in colonial times? When did it first revolt? When successfully? What was its name then? Whence its present name? Who was first President? Its relations with Peru? How ended?

Peru made war on Bolivia, but was defeated and slain, and peace was concluded next year. After 1845 most of the Presidents were militia adventurers in revolution. Exceptions were Dr. Linares, elected in 1858, and Adolfo Ballivian, in 1873, but who died in a few months. Bolivia suffered with Peru in the war with Chili in 1879-81, which left her without a seacoast. During this war President Daza was deposed for cowardice, and was succeeded by Campero. The country has been comparatively quiet since then, but progress there is very slow. In May, 1908, a new President was elected, but, as he died before inauguration, Señor Montes continues in the office.

10. Chili.—This has been the most peaceful and prosperous of the Spanish-American republics. Its northern portion was conquered by the Spaniards between 1544 and 1550, but the Araucanian Indians held out in the south until very recent times. It formed a part of the viceroyalty of Peru, until it rebelled in 1810. At first defeated, the Chilians at last succeeded, with the aid of General San Martin from Buenos Ayres. Its independence was formally proclaimed on January 1, 1818, though Spain's last stronghold was not captured until 1826. It adopted a constitution in 1824, which was revised in 1828 and 1833, and by minor amendments later. The country was thoroughly reorganized by law in 1887. By treaty Spain recognized its independence in 1844. Great advance was made in agriculture, commerce, and mining from 1850 to 1860, under President Montt. As well as Peru, Chili was engaged in war with Spain from 1865 to 1869, when the dispute was ended by the mediation of the United States. From 1879 to 1882, the country was engaged in war with Peru and Bolivia; and was completely victorious, extending its coast-line northwards by four and a half degrees, and taking two provinces from the latter and one from the former country. Its first serious internal trouble began in 1886. Peculiar constitutional conditions enabled the President to control the choice of his successor. Balmaceda, who had been elected in 1885, by following this course, led to the overthrow of his cabinet in 1888. When he undertook to defy the Parliament, a revolt followed in 1890, which

What of period from 1845 to 1873? What war in 1879-81? Condition of country since then?—10. What may be said of the history of Chili? How long under Spanish rule? When was its first revolt? When successful? Its first and subsequent constitutions? When did Spain recognize its independence? The first era of great prosperity? Last war with Spain? That with Peru and Bolivia?

affected the navy even more than the army. The President then assumed a dictatorship, and the opposition organized a junta. The rebels organized in the northern provinces, led their army by sea to a point not far north of Valparaiso, landed there, utterly defeated the Balmacedist army, captured Valparaiso, and then marched on the capital, Santiago, which surrendered early in December, 1891. On the 19th of that month Balmaceda, who had abdicated and concealed himself in the Argentine legation, there committed suicide. The victors then reorganized the government, which has been comparatively stable ever since. On account of the United States Minister, Patrick Egan, openly taking the side of Balmaceda, an intensely bitter feeling sprang up in this country. Shortly afterwards American marines got embroiled in a drunken row in Valparaiso, in which several of them were seriously, and some fatally, injured. Diplomatic demands for reparation receiving no attention, two war vessels were sent to Valparaiso, and then compensation and apology were given.

For many years regarded as the most progressive of the South American republics, Chili is falling behind in the race for precedence. From 1905 to 1907 there was a decrease in the population, which is now little more than half that of Argentina. More friendly relations, however, have been established with her neighbors, and the government is attending to the internal development of the country. The Congress, which was opened June 1, 1908, adopted measures to improve the condition of the working people, and endeavored to remove the causes of disputes between them and their employers. Though there are some unsettled controversies with her northern neighbors, Chili is enjoying an era of peace.

11. Argentina.—This country, fitted by nature to be the most prosperous in South America, has been kept back by almost incessant internal turmoil. It was explored and colonized directly from Spain, as well as from Chili and Peru, between 1515 and 1634, by which time all the Indian tribes had submitted. There were many Indian wars, in which

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Cause of the revolution of 1891? Fate of Balmaceda? Trouble with the United States? Conditions since? What is said of the progress of Chili? How does she compare with Argentina in population? What subjects engage the attention of the Chilian government? Is the country enjoying a period of repose?—11. What is peculiar about Argentina? Its colonial history?

cities were destroyed. It belonged to the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when that of La Plata was formed. The cities of Buenos Ayres and Montevidéo were captured by the English in 1806, but held by them for only a short time. Rebellion against Spain broke out in 1810, when the viceroy was expelled and a junta formed that was not recognized by Uruguay, Paraguay, and Cordova. A constitution was adopted and proclaimed on November 22, 1811, with Buenos Ayres as the capital. Before independence was achieved civil war began between centralizers and federalists. Montevidéo surrendered in 1812, and next year the Spanish flag was given up. In 1815 a new constitution was adopted, which allowed each province to elect its own governor. A congress of all the provinces was held at Tucuman in 1816, when independence was declared, and the following year another new constitution was promulgated. A fresh civil war ensued that was ended only in 1820, though the last and decisive victory over Spain was won only in 1821. The centralists triumphed in 1825 and promulgated another constitution. Their triumph was short-lived, for there was a counter-revolution in 1826, and civil war until 1829. Rosas was President from 1826 to 1835, and dictator from this year until 1852. During this time there were almost incessant uprisings against Buenos Ayres, the last one driving Rosas from power and from the country. Another revolution, resulted in another constitution, adopted in May, 1853, when Uriquiza was elected President. Buenos Ayres was worsted in a fresh civil war that ended in 1859. War broke out afresh in 1861, and again in 1866. But a new era seemed to dawn with the election of Sarmiento to the Presidency in 1868. The country prospered for six years in spite of occasional uprisings. In 1871, the city of Buenos Ayres was terribly scourged with yellow fever. From 1873 to 1880 nothing serious happened; but in this year there was another rebellion, after which General Roca became President, and he was succeeded in 1886 by Miguel Juarez Celman. By treaty with Chili in 1881 the ridge of the Andes became the western boundary of Argentina all the way to Terra del Fuego. Inflated currency and wild speculation caused financial disaster, ending in revolution

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What happened in 1806? And in 1810? What caused the civil wars in Argentina? When was the Spanish flag given up? When was the last battle fought against Spain? How long did Dictator Rosas hold sway? What was his fate? When did the period of chronic civil war end? What happened in 1871? In 1881?

in 1890. The revolt began among the troops, who were joined by the navy and favored by the civic union. After several days' fighting, Celman remained master of the field, but not of the situation, and public opinion forced him to resign on August 5th. The Vice-President, General Pellegrini, succeeded him, and public confidence was restored. Not, however, financial equilibrium all at once. But the country has been comparatively quiet and prosperous since.

In this interval of peace, the republic has made remarkable progress. This is seen in the rapid growth of its population, which, in 1905, was three million nine hundred and fifty-four thousand nine hundred and eleven. On January 1, 1908, it was estimated at six million two hundred and ten thousand four hundred and twenty-eight. An explanation of this phenomenal increase is found in the great immigration to Argentina. During the first two weeks of November, 1908, there arrived at the port of Buenos Ayres seventeen thousand immigrants.

The financial condition of the country is good, and its foreign relations have greatly improved. Buenos Ayres, the capital of Argentina, and its largest city, has a population of one million one hundred and twenty-nine thousand two hundred and eighty-six. It is noted for its clean streets and magnificent buildings. The people of that city boast of the finest clubhouse and the finest theatre in the world. Before the people of Argentina there appears to be a great future.

12. Uruguay.—This was the last South American country settled by Europeans. In 1674, the mission of Santo Domingo, de Loriano was founded on the Rio Negro. Portugal claimed all the territory north of the Plata river, and she and Spain occupied it alternately until 1778, when it was ceded to the latter. It was subordinate to the viceroy of Buenos Ayres. In 1807, Montevideo was captured by the British, but soon evacuated. Uruguay joined in the Plata revolution of 1810, but Spain held out there until 1814, though Montevideo surrendered in 1812. Later on it was conquered by Brazil, against which it revolted in 1825; its independence was recognized in 1828. Civil wars between two factions, known

What happened in 1890? The fate of President Celman? Condition of the country since? What has been the increase of population in Argentina? Explain it. How are its finances? What is said of foreign relations? Describe Buenos Ayres. How does Argentina's future appear?—12. What is peculiar about Uruguay? Who were rival claimants to the territory? When and how did it become independent?

as Whites and Reds, came in rapid succession. The most serious rebellion was that under Oribe, who, aided by Rosas, of Buenos, held out from 1842 to 1851, but was at last put down with the aid of Brazil. This country aided another rebellion in 1862, and its leader, Flores, became President in 1865. Lopez, the dictator of Paraguay, made this affair a pretext for a war on Brazil, which, the most bloody ever known in South America, ended only in 1870 with the death of Lopez. There were several civil wars until 1876, from which time the country was comparatively quiet and prosperous, except for a sharp financial crisis in 1890-91. Another attempt at revolution, backed from the neighboring Brazilian state of Rio Grande do Sul, broke out late in 1896, and was continued in 1897, when it became formidable for a time. Several attempts at negotiation failed. Great dissatisfaction against President Borda sprang up in his own party, the Reds, and, at a great military pageant in Montevideo, he was assassinated, on August 25, 1897. Vice-President Cuestas then became President, made concessions to the Whites, and peace was restored. For the term ending February 28, 1911, Dr. Claudio Williman was chosen.

13. Paraguay.—The first European known to have reached this region was Sebastian Cabot, in 1527, in search of a short passage to Peru. Spaniards under Ayolas founded Asuncion, in 1536. The Jesuits became powerful in Paraguay after 1611, founding there the famous reductions, or mission farms, on which they civilized the Indians. But these fell into ruins after the Jesuits were expelled, in 1767, and the Indians relapsed into barbarism. Following Buenos Ayres, Paraguay declared its independence in 1811. Almost immediately it fell under the dictatorship of Francia, who was succeeded by Carlos Antonio Lopez in 1841. He, in 1862, bequeathed the government to his son, Francisco Solano Lopez There was little material progress made, but the country was free from debt and was generally peaceful. The ambition of the younger Lopez, however, plunged it into war with Brazil, Argentina, and Uruguay, which lasted from 1864 to 1870. This war ended with Lopez's death and left the country

What led to revolt of 1825? Relations with Brazil? Cause of the bloodiest war in South America? What happened in 1890? And in 1896? How was the last civil war ended?—13. Who was the first European in Paraguay? When and where was the first Spanish settlement? What of the Jesuit missions? When was independence declared? Who was the first dictator? The second? What war broke out in 1864? Its effects?

ruined and the population reduced to one-third of what it had been; it also suffered the loss of considerable territory ceded to Argentina and Brazil. Soon after this war the present constitution was adopted. Since then the state has enjoyed peace, but makes progress slowly. In 1894, an unpopular President was deposed without bloodshed. In a revolution of July, 1908, nearly five hundred people were killed in the streets of Asuncion.

14. Brazil.—Having completed our account of the Spanish dominions on the American continent, we come now to the only one held by Portugal. Brazil was discovered accidentally on April 22, 1500, by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, who was blown on the coast south of Bahia, while on his way to India. He took possession of the land for Portugal. But it remained long neglected. The first colony, called Sao Vicente, south of Rio Janeiro, was founded in 1532. Bahia was started in 1549, and became the capital. Later on there were short-lived French colonies at Rio Janeiro (1555-60), and Maranhao (1612-19). The Dutch seized Bahia in 1624, held it for a year, took Pernambuco in 1631, and formed a powerful colony there. But these colonists were constantly at war with Portugal, and were finally driven out in 1654. Brazil was governed by viceroys from 1640, and in 1762 the capital was changed to Rio Janeiro. The colonies developed rapidly in the eighteenth century. When, in 1808, Napoleon drove the prince regent, Dom Joao, out of Portugal, the latter took refuge in Brazil, making Rio his capital. Succeeding to the Portuguese throne in 1816, he returned to Portugal in April, 1821, leaving his son, Dom Pedro, as regent. This prince placed himself at the head of a movement for independence, and on September 7, 1822, definitely refused obedience to Portugal. A constituent assembly was convoked, which declared Brazil an empire, and on December 1st, of that year, Dom Pedro was crowned. There was some opposition and fighting, especially in the northern provinces, which did not entirely cease until 1837. For political reasons, Dom Pedro I had to abdicate on April 6, 1831, in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II, who was a minor; therefore, there was a regency until 1840, when his majority was proclaimed. Uruguay was part of Brazil from 1821 to 1825. Later on Rosas, the

What changes since then?—14. Who discovered Brazil, and when? When and where was first settlement? What other European nations tried settlements in Brazil? How was colonial Brazil governed? How did Brazil come to separate from Portugal? Who were its emperors?

Argentine dictator, attempted to annex Uruguay, when Brazil made war on him and defeated him, in 1852. As already seen, the empire was at war with Paraguay from 1864 to 1870. Brazil was the last slave-holding state in America. A gradual abolition of slavery was decreed by an almost unanimous vote of total abolition was decreed by an almost unanimous vote of Parliament. In 1889, a sudden revolution forced the Emperor to abdicate. He then withdrew to Europe, where he died soon afterwards. Fonseca became dictator, and, after the adoption of a constitution, on February 4, 1891, was chosen President. He was deposed in November following, and succeeded by the Vice-President, Peixoto, against whom several states and the navy rebelled in 1893-94; but this movement collapsed in March of the latter year, upon Prudente Moras being elected President. There have been two stubborn rebellions since; one in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, and the other, led by a religious fanatic, in the mountainous region to the northwest of Rio. Both were suppressed in 1898.

Though Dom Pedro was liberal in his views, he committed the fatal mistake of offending his military chiefs. These, joining with the Republicans, forced him to sign an act of abdication. The imperial family was put on board a vessel for Lisbon, where they arrived on December 17, 1889. A provisional government was then organized, and a republic proclaimed.

As might have been expected, the officers of the army replaced the civilians who had served under the Empire. The new government acted with energy, and by arrests and imprisonment promptly crushed opposition. It soon recognized civil marriage, and decreed a separation of Church and State. A constitution modeled on that of the United States was promulgated by the provisional government. According to its provisions, the President, as with us, is chosen indirectly by the people. He is elected for a term of five years, but is not reëligible. The Congress consists of two houses. The upper house consists of three senators from each state; the lower is made up of representatives, there being one for every seventy thousand people. As in the

What foreign wars did Brazil wage? When was slavery abolished? When and how did the country become a republic? What of the first President? Rebellions since then? What led to the abdication of Dom Pedro? What form of government followed? How did the new government deal with the opposition that it met with? What important law was soon passed? What is the model of the Brazilian constitution?

United States, the judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court.

The despotic rule of the first two Presidents was in strange contrast with the mild rule of Dom Pedro. Insurrections soon followed, and the rebels were ruthlessly punished. Peace was restored in 1896, though the President's life was attempted in 1897. On March 1, 1906, Dr. Affonso Penna was elected President. The country was then tranquil. Our Secretary of State, Elihu Root, visited Brazil in the same year, and, at a session of the Pan-American Conference, did much to set at rest the distrust of that country for American policy.

The immigration to Brazil is very considerable. The Germans retain their national customs, and the same is to some extent true of the Italians. The Portuguese, of course, are easily assimilated. The native population is by no means homogeneous. There are about four hundred thousand Indians; three million five hundred thousand negroes; five million whites, and more than six million half-breeds.

15. Hayti and Santo Domingo.—Hispaniola, or Espanola, called Hayti by the natives, the first colony planted by Spain in America, was also the first to throw off the yoke. It was colonized on Columbus' second voyage, in 1493. But after the rich discoveries made on the continent, the island was neglected, became partly depopulated, and later on fell a prey to the buccaneers. Frenchmen of this class began to settle in the west of the island about 1630, and that region was ceded to France in 1697. This French colony became very prosperous; but negro slaves came to be ten to one white person, and the free mulattoes were at last quite discontented. The French Revolution was quickly followed by a revolt of these mulattoes. Both parties appealed to the slaves, and in 1791-92 a terrible insurrection broke out. But factions divided the rebels. England and Spain invaded the country in 1793; but the blacks, who were emancipated by the French Assembly in 1795, under Toussaint L'Ouverture, resisted the English and drove them out in 1798. The eastern part of the island was ceded to France by Spain in 1795, and occupied

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Was the new government, in the beginning, an improvement on the old? What American statesman visited Brazil in 1906? What was the result of his visit? What races are settling in Brazil? What backward races are inhabiting that country?—15. What is peculiar about Hayti? How did the French get possession? With what result? Its first great rebellion? The leader?

by Toussaint, who was general-in-chief in 1797, but in reality dictator. Governing nominally in the name of France until 1801, he practically declared independence. In 1802, Bonaparte sent a large force to subdue him, and he was conquered and sent to France. Fresh rebellions broke out, and the French were expelled in 1803. On January 1, 1804, the whole island was declared independent. Soon afterwards Dessalines proclaimed himself Emperor, but was assassinated in 1806. His successor, Christophe, a negro, proclaimed himself king, but could hold only the northwest part of the island. The southwest formed a republic under Petrou, and the east was seized by Spain. When Christophe died, in 1820, Boyer, Petrou's successor, annexed his domains. In 1821, the eastern part rebelled against Spain and formed a republic under the protection of Colombia, but was soon after conquered by Boyer. The whole island was then reunited in the Republic of Hayti and prospered wonderfully. Boyer was overthrown in 1843, and in 1844 a revolution in the eastern part resulted in final separation.

Since that time the career of Hayti has been turbulent. Soulouque proclaimed himself Emperor in 1849, as Faustin I. A mulatto, General Geffrard, rebelled, overthrew him, and was proclaimed President at the close of 1858. He himself was overturned in 1867 by Salnave, who was deposed in January, 1870. There was no further violent succession until 1888, when President Salamon was deposed. A civil war resulted in the ascendency of Telemaque until the election of Hippolyte, October 9, 1889, under whom the country was comparatively free from disorder, as well as under his successor, Tiresias Augustin Simon Sam, elected in 1896. But, on the whole, civilization has been moving backward in the Black Republic.

The Dominican Republic, after its final separation from Hayti in 1844, had as its first President, General Pedro Santana, who resigned in 1848, but came into public life again to repel and defeat Soulouque in 1849. Santana was once more President in 1853, and a second time, in 1856, overthrew Soulouque and the Haytians. But he was obliged to retire in 1857. A revolution in 1858 made Santana President again.

When independent? Who was first President? When was the whole island reunited? When and how divided again? Who was Soulouque? Geffrard? Who was Salnave? What happened in 1888? Conditions since? What did Santana do for Santo Domingo?

He secretly ceded the country to Spain in 1861, but the Spaniards were driven out in 1865, and the constitution of 1844 was revived. Negotiations were carried on in 1869 to annex the republic to the United States, but the proposition was rejected by our Senate. This failure led to another revolution and several years of disorder, until the election of General Ulisses Heureaux, in 1886. He ruled firmly and vigorously. Before the end of his first term the constitution was changed so that he could succeed himself. He remained in office until his assassination, on July 26, 1899.

16. Cuba.—"The Pearl of the Antilles," long also called "the Ever Faithful Isle," though discovered on Columbus' first voyage, was not colonized until 1511. Then the Indian population was treated so harshly that it became extinct in 1553. In 1534, and again in 1554, Havana was destroyed by the French. It was speedily rebuilt, and in 1584 strongly fortified. Captured by the Dutch in 1624, it was soon restored to Spain. From 1650 to 1700 the island's ports were often ravaged by the buccaneers and filibusters, who destroyed Puerto Principe in 1688. The island prospered after 1700. In 1762 Havana was taken by the English, but exchanged the following year. It soon became the centre of the Spanish-American slave trade. There were negro insurrections in 1844 and 1848, and in the latter year over ten thousand negroes perished. Repeated efforts were made to get the United States to acquire Cuba, for which $20,000,000 was offered in 1854. There were insurrections again from 1849 to 1857, led by American adventurers. But Cuba's greatest rebellion broke out in 1868. Lasting ten years, it is said to have cost two hundred thousand lives and $200,000,000. A law for the gradual abolition of slavery was passed by the Spanish Cortes in 1879, and slavery was absolutely ended in 1886. The last rebellion began in February, 1895, and, with the aid of the United States, Cuba became free in 1898. This war is described elsewhere.

In its treatment of Cuba the United States has been generous. When a native government had been established in

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How did Spain regain possession? Negotiation with the United States? What followed? Who became President in 1886? His successor? His fate?—16. When was Cuba colonized? What of its aborigines? From whom did its ports suffer at various times? When did the island begin to prosper? When were its insurrections? The greatest of them? When was slavery abolished? When and how did Spain lose Cuba? How has the United States treated Cuba?

the island, the American troops were withdrawn. In 1906, however, because of disturbances of an insurrectionary character there, it became necessary for our government to occupy it once more with a military force, and to establish a provisional government. Peace and order were soon restored. Late in the summer of 1908 elections were held, and, on October 1, provincial governors and councils, municipal mayors and councils, assumed office. This marked an important step toward a restoration of government to the Cuban people. Though American troops no longer occupy the island, a certain measure of order prevails. If it shall continue to be necessary for the United States repeatedly to interfere for the preservation of peace in Cuba, it is difficult to perceive how she can avoid annexation to our republic. Though there has existed a state of comparative tranquillity, the newspapers bring tidings of a new disturbance.

ASIA

Though it is the largest and by far the most populous of the continents, yet Asia has almost the least history that concerns us from the point of view of modern civilization; it is also uninteresting because it is the home of so few independent nations. The greater part of its territory, if not of its population, consists of dependencies of European powers, as do most of the islands adjacent to it, with the exception of the insular empire of Japan. All of its vast region, known as Siberia, and the greater part of Turkestan, to the southwest of it, belong, for instance, to Russia, which also holds portions of what were once Armenian and Persian lands, the rest of Armenia, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and the best sections of Arabia to Turkey, while the great Indian empire is England's, and France has extensive possessions on the China Sea and Gulf of Siam. The last two

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What led to the American military occupation in 1906? What was the result? How was the control of Cuba restored to its people? Is there now in the island an American army? If it becomes necessary for the United States to send troops into Cuba from time to time, what may happen?

Asia.—What is the general political character of Asia? Its European possessions? Independent countries?

are all of these that need treatment here, along with Persia, Afghanistan, Beloochistan, China, Corea, Japan, and what is left of the Kingdom of Siam, to form a "buffer" between England and France in Indo-China. The independent tribes in interior and southern Arabia do not call for historical notice.

1. PERSIA.—The authentic history of the greater part of the region covered by this Empire goes back at least six centuries before the Christian era, and of some of it still farther. It belongs in part to the story of Assyria, Babylonia, Media, Persia, the Greece of Alexander the Great, Syria, and Parthia. The last named kingdom, originating about 216 B. C., the Romans were never able to conquer. On the contrary, they often met disaster in their hostile contact with it, as well as with the second Persian kingdom that succeeded it about 246 A. D. In the middle of the seventh century this power was overthrown by the Mohammedans, and remained almost continually a subject province of foreign rule, Saracen, Turk, Tartar, and Mongol, until the beginning of the sixteenth century. Then there was a revolt against the successor of Tamerlane in Persia, led by one Ismail, who was descended from a famous sheik or chief named Saffi. Having won independence and founded the Saffavean dynasty, he died in 1523, and was succeeded by his son, Tamasp, who reigned prosperously for fifty-three years. Abbas, who began to reign in 1587, was a still greater sovereign. After his death, in 1628, the dynasty gradually declined, and was overthrown by the Afghans in 1722. They ruled Persia tyranically for seven years, until they were expelled by Nadir Shah, who ascended the throne in 1736. He won success over the foreign enemies of his country, but was cruel and bloodthirsty at home. His death, in 1747, was followed by a series of revolutions, and order was not restored until near the end of the century, when Aga Mohammed, the first of the reigning Kadjar dynasty, became shah. Persia's first war with Russia terminated in 1813, and the second in 1828. Both wars ended disastrously to Persia, which lost several of its northwestern provinces, from the Caucasus to its present boundary. A third foreign war had to be maintained against England. It began in 1856, and arose from disputes with the British minister at Teheran. After victories won by Generals Outram

1. Early history of Persia? Its successive conquerors? Beginning of its modern history? Afghan conquest? What of Nadir Shah? Changes of dynasty? Recent foreign wars?

and Havelock, it was brought to a close in 1857 by a treaty favorable to England. Persia was afflicted with a great pestilence in 1860, and a still greater one in 1870-71, which is said to have caused two million deaths. In the summer of 1873, the Shah Nâsr-ed-Din, who had ascended the throne in 1848, at the age of eighteen, visited the countries of Europe, including England. He was continuing his long reign in comparative peace, prosperity, and some progress towards western civilization, when, on May 1, 1896, while entering a shrine at Teheran, he was shot dead by a fanatical assassin dressed as a woman. He was succeeded by his son, Muzaffereddin, who was enthroned at Teheran on June 8th. He was reported insane in 1889. The country has suffered from Russian intrigue, and is now convulsed by civil strife.

2. Afghanistan.—Almost since we know anything of it, this country has been a mass of heterogeneous elements, rarely held together in one government. Alexander the Great reached India through it, by way of the Cabul river. It was at times subsequently included in the ancient Greek kingdom of Bactria. Various barbaric dynasties succeeded, until it fell into the hands of a powerful Mohammedan family in the tenth century. Conquered by Genghis Khan in the thirteenth, and by Timur, or Tamerlane, at the end of the fourteenth century, it was ruled by Mongol sovereigns until it was subdued by Persia in 1642. From this country it was separated early in the eighteenth century by the native Ghilzais, who, in their turn, themselves conquered Persia and held it for a few years. But Nadir Shah recovered Persia and ruled both kingdoms. In Afghanistan, after his assassination in 1747, he was succeeded by a noble native, Ahmed Khan, the first ruler of the country as it is today. Anarchy followed his death. The next prominent ruler was Dost Mohammed, who provoked war with England in 1838-39, and thereby lost his throne. But he regained it in 1842, after another war that was disastrous to England, and reigned until 1863. He was succeeded by his son, Shere Ali Khan, against whom, in 1878, England declared and waged the war that made General Lord Roberts famous, and that resulted in the

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Great plague? What happened in 1873? Death of Nâsr-ed-Din? His successor?—2. What is to be said of the ancient history of this country? To whom subject in mediæval times? When subdued by Persia? When freed from it? Relations with Persia in the seventeenth century? First wars with England? Who was Lord Roberts?

deposition of the Khan, and the accession of his son, Yakub. Riot and turbulence, followed until 1880, found Abdul Rahman Khan, a grandson of Dost Mohammed, in possession of the government. He was occupied for some years in subduing rebellious tribes. Danger has long been threatening the country from the north, as Russia has extended her sway to its border in that direction. In 1908, the Ameer was Habibullah Khan.

3. Beloochistan.—This large and for the most part barren country, lying between Afghanistan and the Indian Ocean, was under Indian or Hindu influence until the power of the Khan of Khelat was founded, towards the end of the seventeenth century. Nasir Khan II, of this Brahui dynasty, was recognized, in 1841, by England, which, in 1854, made a treaty with him, granting him an annual subsidy. With his brother, Khudadad, who succeeded him, another treaty was negotiated in 1876, and the subsidy was doubled. The country is now entirely under British control.

4. India.—This vast, fertile, and wealthy country came into actual contact with Europe only at the end of the fifteenth century. Alexander the Great stopped his career of conquest on its northwestern boundary. But many centuries before his time the Aryan Hindoos had poured into the peninsula from the great Iranian plateau, and driven the aborigines, the dark, swarthy Dravidians, to its southern end, where a remnant of them is still to be found. Even before historic times Brahminism was the religion of the race that thus became dominant, and that remained so for over a thousand years after Christ. It was only in the eleventh century of our era that the first Mohammedan invasion of Hindoostan took place, under Mahmud, of Ghazni. Other irruptions followed until the greater part of the country was parceled out into Moslem kingdoms. The conquest of these, as well as of what were left of the native sovereignties, was begun by the Mongols, or Moguls, in 1526, and they maintained a great empire, sometimes broken up by rebellions and civil wars, for nearly two centuries. About the time of the beginning of this dominance Portugal began to establish

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What followed from 1880? What danger threatens from the north? —3. When was the power of the Khan of Khelat founded? When did England's influence begin here? When strengthened? Present condition?—4. What of ancient India? When did the Mohammedan conquest begin? The Mogul domination? First European settlements, and by whom?

trading-posts on the western coast. These developed into colonies, over which in time a viceroy was appointed, with Goa as his capital. But during the time of Portugal's subjection to Spain, from 1580 to 1640, these were naturally neglected, and most of them in the seventeenth century were captured by the Dutch, only Goa and a very few others remaining. About this time also the Hindoo power was revived by the Mahrattas. Later on Dutch influence, for the most part, passed to the English and the French. The English established their first trading post at Surat, in 1613. Then followed that of Armegoor, seventy miles north of Madras, in 1628. In 1634, they built a factory at the mouth of the Hoogley, and on Bombay Island in 1669. The Hoogley factories were removed to Calcutta in 1698. In the meantime the French had been equally industrious in establishing trading settlements, of which Pondicherry became the capital. By the middle of the eighteenth century their power in India rivalled that of England, and in 1744, while the war of the Austrian succession was going on in Europe, hostilities broke out between them. Though Dupleix dreamt of founding a great French empire in India, no important results were reached there. But the struggle was renewed in 1756, when Robert Clive, an English clerk at Madras, rose to be a great general and a British peer. It was at this time that took place, under Surajah Dowlah, the native ruler of Bengal, the horrible imprisonment of Englishmen in the Black Hole of Calcutta. This city and Chandernagore were soon captured by Clive, who defeated Surajah Dowlah, at Plassey, on June 23, 1757. On January 22, 1760, the French were completely routed by the English at Wandiwash, and an end came of Dupleix's dream of empire. The former battle had given England possession of Bengal and Behar, and a war against Delhi and Oude soon followed. Delhi, the capital of the Mogul empire, until it broke up after the death of the great and cruel Aurungzebe, in 1717, and still the chief city in India, was no longer the centre of great power. In 1772, Warren Hastings assumed the management of the East India Company, which controlled the British possessions in Hindoostan, and was made governor-general two years later. His tyranny and robbery of the natives brought on him his famous impeachment trial, which reduced him to poverty and

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French and English rivalry? Battles by which England gained supremacy? First governor-general?

obscurity. Lord Cornwallis, who became governor-general in 1786, made extensive conquests. The power of the Mahrattas was destroyed in 1803, by Arthur Wellesley, who afterwards became Duke of Wellington. Ere long the British, when Poona fell to them, were masters of India as far as the Indus basin, but not yet of Sinde and the Punjab, the former of which was annexed in 1843, bringing on a war with the Sikhs, and the latter in 1849. These were followed by Pegu in 1852, and Oude in 1856, to which Lower Burmah was soon added. But discontent against British rule had long been smouldering. Encouraged by the defeat of the English in Afghanistan, fresh fuel was added to it by compelling the native soldiers, it is said, to bite off the ends of cartridges smeared with the fat of hogs and cows, the one abhorred by the Mohammedans and the other by the Hindoos, and shooting them from the mouths of cannon when they refused. Goaded thus to desperation, they at last rose in the great rebellion known as that of the Sepoys, which began in 1857, with simultaneous disturbances at many points. The first important one of these was the massacre at Meerut, on May 10th. Thence the mutineers marched to Delhi, where there was another butchery. Benares was in revolt on June 4th, and on the 27th a frightful massacre took place at Cawnpore. Oude rebelled almost to a man, and the Europeans were besieged in its capital, Lucknow, where they suffered great hardships. Soon vengeance came with a heavy hand and with unnecessary severity, not merely barbarous, but savage. Delhi was stormed in the middle of September, and Oude recovered on the 25th, while the siege of Lucknow was raised just in time. On December 6th the rebels were defeated at Cawnpore by Sir Colin Campbell. By the end of June, 1858, the rebellion had practically been suppressed with a brutality worthy of the Turks at their worst. Then came a readjustment of government and finances. By a proclamation published at Allahabad, on November 1, 1858, the Queen assumed the government of India, and viceroys superseded the governors-general. These succeeding representatives of majesty consolidated the dominion, which has since been increased by conquests beyond both the Indus and the Ganges. During Lord Lytton's term, at Delhi, in 1877, the

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Some succeeding conquerors? Chief annexations before 1857? What was the great event of that year? What change of government in 1858? Character of government since then? What happened in 1877?

Queen was proclaimed Empress of India. The peaceful development of the empire has, however, been marred, not only by minor frontier wars, but by famine and pestilence in various parts of the country; and another such double scourge is threatened.

To-day the history of India is merely a repetition of what it has been for more than a century. As late as February, 1908, there was fighting between the British and the border tribes, assisted by bodies of Afghans. As usual, the natives were severely punished, and the Ameer informed of the unfriendly conduct of his subjects. By floods in April of the same year, thousands perished, and upwards of one hundred thousand persons were rendered homeless. During the famine of 1908, about one and one-half millions of natives were relieved by the government.

Among the vast Indian population there is a growing party that desires separation from England. A much larger element, however, prefers to learn self-government from British rulers. To this party British occupation means progress. In almost every part of the land there is ominous unrest. What the future may have in store for that afflicted country it is impossible to foretell.

5. China.—There is evidence that, while the race now most numerous in the Middle Kingdom is not the aboriginal race of the country, yet its occupation of that region dates back to a very remote antiquity. It probably migrated thither from the eastern side of the Caspian Sea. For many centuries its political organization in what is now China proper, that is, the portion of the empire southeast of the great wall, which it built as a protection against Mongol incursions, was a feudal confederacy. This system, fruitful of internecine strife, came to an end in 221 B. C., when Tsin put down all competitors and assumed the title of Hwang Ti, or Emperor, at the same time forbidding the use of but one title in a nation. The Tsin dynasty held sway from 260 B. C. until 420 A. D., before which time the realm had to be reunited; this was done once more, under the following dynasty, in 590. There were other dynastic changes prior to the

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Recent scourges of the country? What is said of conditions in India? What two important elements exist in that country? What are their sentiments? Is British India in a tranquil state?—5. What was the political condition of ancient China? When was its government unified? Why was the great wall built? When was the Mongol conquest?

Mongol supremacy. The great conqueror of this race, Genghis Khan, advanced on Peking in 1215. It was under his most illustrious successor in the far East, the celebrated Kublai Khan, that, late in the thirteenth century, the famous Venetian merchants and travellers, the Polos, made their famous tour of the realm of which one of them, Marco, has left us so interesting an account. Kublai, who had made Peking his capital in 1279, was perhaps the most enlightened and liberal despot that ever ruled in Asia. He at once took kindly to strangers, showered favors on them, and commissioned them to have the Pope send priests to preach Christianity to his people. The first Catholic missionaries arrived at Peking in 1294, and the work begun by them flourished for over half a century. But the great Kahn had no successor worthy of himself. The Mongol power declined rapidly after his death, and, besides, famine is said to have destroyed thirteen million of the inhabitants in 1342. This calamity started a great revolt, which ended in a revolution that drove the Mongols out of the country. Then the native Ming dynasty succeeded in 1368, and once more China was hermetically sealed against foreigners. The first Europeans to reach the country by sea were Portuguese traders, who appeared at Canton in 1516. Spaniards and Dutch came later, and in 1635 the English. Five years later, through internal broils, the sway of the Ming dynasty came to a close. Civil war having broken out, one faction invited the Manchus to aid them, and the latter, being successful, placed their own prince on the throne, which has been held by his family ever since. Ere this time, Christianity had been introduced into the realm, and was now comparatively strong. The Jesuit Father Ricci began to preach it there in 1583, and many converts were made even among the mandarins. Audnow, another Jesuit, became prime minister under the first Manchu Emperor. But ere long Catholics were to be subjected to bitter persecution. The island of Formosa was conquered by China in 1661, and Thibet about the same time. The churches were restored to the missionaries in 1671; but early in the eighteenth century another persecution broke out and the priests were expelled, 1722-36. With the English

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What of Kublai Khan and Marco Polo? First Catholic missions in China? What calamity and change in the fourteenth century? When did the Portuguese reach China? Who soon followed them? What change in 1640? Christians persecuted and priests expelled?

came a traffic that was to cause no little trouble. This was the importation of opium, which was small until 1767, after which it gradually and greatly increased, until, in 1800, an imperial edict against it was issued. But the trade went on, and grew greater from year to year. On its account embassies from Great Britain were dismissed in 1792 and 1816. In 1834, the two nations were brought defiantly face to face, and five years later China made its great effort of opposition. This caused England's first war against China, the opium war of 1840. China was worsted, and a treaty of peace was signed at Nanking in 1842, by which the island of Hong Kong was ceded to England and several ports were opened to British trade. Within fifteen years fresh troubles arose at Canton not at all creditable to England. War was decided on, and France took part as England's ally. Canton was captured on December 29, 1857, and then emissaries went north to lay their demands before the Emperor. A second treaty was concluded at Tien Tsin on June 26, 1858, which, in addition to the terms of the former, stipulated freedom for Christian missionaries and their converts, and the opening of additional ports. The United States, France, and Russia were included with England in the terms of this treaty. But instead of allowing the European emissaries to reach Peking in order to have the treaty ratified, the Chinese renewed hostilities and repulsed the English at the mouth of the Pei-ho river. They and the French then took immediate action, and a third expedition was sent there in August, 1860, which bombarded and captured the forts. After some delay peace was concluded, with an additional indemnity exacted from China. In the meantime, the government had to contend against a great uprising, known as the Taiping rebellion, which started in the southern provinces in 1850, and lasted until 1864, when it was suppressed with the aid of the famous English general, known as "Chinese" Gordon. There were other rebellions during this time and afterwards, and a great massacre of foreigners at Tien Tsin on June 24, 1870, when French residents, a priest, and several nuns were murdered, and a church was burned. More ports were opened in 1876, and certain concessions were made regarding the opium traffic. In the summer of 1894 came the "yellow war," between China and

What trouble did England cause in China? When was the opium war? The second war with England? What caused its renewal? Concessions following it? When was the Taiping rebellion? What massacre in 1870?

Japan, over rival claims in Korea. China was disastrously beaten, and by the treaty of Shimonoseki made enormous concessions to Japan, most of which, especially that of territory, were annulled and abandoned at the demand of Russia, with whose designs on China they interferred. Russian influence, in spite of the diplomacy and protest of England, for a brief period was predominant in northern China, which virtually became Russian territory. In May, 1900, there was a most formidable outbreak, known as the Boxer movement, against foreigners. The European legations in Peking were fiercely attacked and barely saved from massacre by European, American, and Japanese forces, after hard fighting. The court fled to the interior. Many native Christians and their missionaries were murdered.

On December 19, 1900, a joint note from the Powers informed the Chinese authorities of the conditions on which they would agree to conclude peace. Of the officials chiefly responsible for the outbreak against foreigners six were sentenced to death; how many of these sentences were executed it is impossible to state, for all the witnesses are Chinese. China was to pay to private persons, societies and foreign states, the sum of $325,000,000. A prince was to go to Germany and apologize to the Emperor for the murder of Ambassador Von Ketteler, who was killed before the arrival of the allied armies. In addition to these, many minor conditions were imposed. The conflicting views of the Powers, however, enabled China to avoid the punishment that would otherwise have been inflicted.

After providing for the safety of the foreign legations, the allied armies, September 17, 1901, evacuated Peking. Soon after was commenced a reorganization of the Chinese army, of the system of education, and the political administration of the country. It was at this time that Russian armies overran the Chinese province of Manchuria. The consequences of that policy will be discussed under the head of Japan.

The Boxer insurrection and its consequences gave to Chinese students an impulse to study the constitutional sys-

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Cause of the yellow war? Its outcome? What part did Russia take? Action of other European powers? Probable outcome? What were some of the conditions imposed upon China by the Powers? Why was she not more severely punished? What was the date of the evacuation of Peking? What was Russia doing while the allies were around Peking?

tems of the world. The movement was strengthened by the Japanese victory over Russia, for it proved that all branches of the white race were not superior to the Mongolian. Students returning from various parts of the world have brought with them philosophic and political treatises which have been translated into Chinese and have been widely read. This has awakened a strong national feeling; a feeling that was greatly intensified by the Tatsu Maru affair, which occurred on February 5, 1908. That was the seizure in Portuguese waters, by Chinese customs officials, of a Japanese vessel that had attempted to discharge a cargo of arms shipped from a Japanese port. Japan demanded an apology and indemnity. This humiliation caused intense excitement in China. Minor difficulties with both Russia and France occurred during the year 1908. Much is expected from the new spirit aroused by these incidents.

On August 27, 1908, the Emperor issued a decree which promised China a new constitution in nine years. The more ardent reformers ask why the benefits of the proposed system should be postponed for so long a period.

Despite the strength of the conservative element among the Chinese, there is a growing progressive party, which in various ways is endeavoring to spread liberal ideas. The awakening of that vast nation seems to be near at hand.

6. KOREA.—This peninsula, occupied by what is known as the Hermit Kingdom, was probably peopled from China. Very little that is authentic is known of Korean history before the third century of the Christian era. In the eleventh century it united into one kingdom. There was a revolution in 1392, when the present dynasty came into power. Most of the country was conquered by Japan in 1593; but the Japanese were soon driven out by the Chinese, who claimed suzerainty there. Until a few years ago it remained at peace with its neighbors, since the Manchu domination in China, and sedulously excluded all foreign intercourse. Early in the latter half of this century Catholic missionaries found their way into the country and made many converts; but a

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Name the chief elements in the awakening of China. Describe the Tatsu Maru affair. What was Japan's action? What was the imperial promise of August 27, 1908? What is the obstacle to the awakening of China? What element of the population favors the adoption of new ideas?—6. What was the probable origin of Korea? When did it become one kingdom? When did the present dynasty attain power? What happened in 1593? Relations with neighbors?

bitter persecution arose against them, and a massacre of them and their followers took place in 1866. A French fleet went to get redress, but had to leave without effecting any substantial benefit. A United States squadron went in 1870 on a similar mission, and with practically the same result. Korea entered into a treaty of commerce with Japan in 1876, and with other countries later until 1886. These arrangements led to insurrections in 1884 and 1894. When the Chinese sent troops to put down the latter, Japan protested and sent a larger force to occupy the capital, Seoul, and other places. This conflict of suzerainty led to a great war between Japan and China, which broke out in the latter part of July, and ended early the following year with Japan completely victorious. China then relinquished all claim to a protectorate over Korea, which she yielded to her rival. But Russia interferred, and for a time not only exercised that authority in the Hermit Kingdom, and in northern China, but even threatened Japan.

7. JAPAN.—The people of this very strange and remarkable island empire are, with the exception of the dwarfish Ainos, in the extreme north, probably of the same origin as the Chinese; but the two nations have in recent times betrayed an entirely different disposition toward European civilization. Like that of China, the ancient history of Japan is lost in the impenetrable mist of myth, fable, and legend, and is amenable only to conjecture. Its authentic history does not properly begin until about the year 500 A. D., shortly after which date Buddhism was introduced into the country. A long period of various contests and civil wars was closed in 1185, when the shogun, or generalissimo of the armies, became the real leader and ruler of the country, the Mikado, or Emperor, being reduced to the position of a mere figurehead in a unique sort of despotism. The Mongols, under Kublai Khan, late in the thirteenth century, made an attempt to invade and conquer Japan, which was saved, as England was saved from the Spanish Armada three centuries later, by a fierce storm, fully as much as by the resistance of the islanders. During the sixty years preceding 1392, two rival dy-

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Treatment of Catholic missionaries and their converts? Commercial treaties with foreign nations? Their outcome? Causes, results, and outcome of the yellow war?—7. What of Japan's early history? When does its authentic history begin? Origin and duration of the shogun's power? How was Japan saved from the Mongols?

nasties ruled, divided, and distracted the empire. From this year until 1573 was a period of high art and culture. Late in this period, 1542, the Portuguese entered the country, being the first Europeans there. Christianity was shortly afterwards introduced, the most notable missionary there being the celebrated St. Francis Xavier, one of the first companions of St. Ignatius Loyola. The miracle of multitudinous conversions, performed by the Apostles, were repeated by him, so numerous were those he won over to the true Faith, which gained adherents even in the imperial family and household. But from 1573, deplorable anarchy set in, and then came violent persecution of the Christians, who were almost exterminated. It was supposed that Christianity had become extinct there until, after the country had been reopened to missionaries in the present century, a community of fully twenty-five thousand was found that had retained the Catholic religious practises and faith. In 1592, the Japanese overran Korea, but thereby became involved in a war with China which lasted until 1598. They were severely defeated and had to evacuate the country. In 1638, the policy of isolation was adopted in regard to the Dutch, who were admitted on condition that they would trample on the cross, the emblem of Catholic Christianity. Foreign trade with other nations was not reopened until 1854, when Commodore Perry, the American, forced the negotiation of a treaty. That was the dawn of a new era for Japan. Some leading Japanese went abroad to study European ways, and on their return home organized the revolution that in 1868 overthrew the shogun and restored the Mikado to power. After the suppression of a rebellion in 1877, a penal code, drawn up on European lines, was adopted in 1880, and a civil code in 1893. A parliament had been promised to the people in 1881, but was granted to them only after a lapse of nine years. The European plan of a nobility came into vogue in 1884, and treaties with foreign powers were negotiated in 1889 and afterwards. But there is nothing in human development to equal the rapidity of the social revolution that has taken place in Japan. It has been as it were a sudden transformation to the ways of European civilization. This radical change was soon to stand the nation in good stead, when, in 1894, it became

What of the period 1392-1573? Catholic missions after 1542? What came after 1573? What war in 1592? What policy adopted in 1638? What happened in 1854? In 1868? Some of the changes since?

embroiled in a war with China. Great disorder arose in Korea that year. China sent an army there to put down a rebellion, and Japan dispatched a larger force to protect her own interests and assert her right of overlordship. The former resented this action, and sent more troops to aid Korea against Japan, whereupon Japan declared war against China on August 1st. Before the end of that month she had won a signal victory at Asan, and a greater one at Ping Yang on September 16th. A few days later Korea was cleared of Chinese soldiers. Japan was equally victorious on the sea. In the beginning of the war a Chinese transport, with eleven hundred men on board, was sunk, and a dispatch vessel captured. On September 17th took place, at the mouth of the Yalu river, the northwestern boundary of Korea, the first great naval battle between modern armored vessels, resulting in overwhelming defeat for the Chinese. Thenceforward the war was waged on Chinese soil, where Japan won a series of brilliant victories. Port Arthur was besieged and captured late in November, and soon afterwards Wei-hai-wei, opposite, on the southern side of the strait, from which the Japanese army was preparing to march on Peking, when China sued for peace. Later on a treaty of peace was concluded at Shimonoseki, by which China conceded nearly all of Japan's demands. But the latter country was robbed of many of the best fruits of her victory by the imperious interference of Russia, of which mention has already been made. Japan has since continued in her course of progress, with peace marred only by a rebellion in Formosa, ceded to her by China in 1895, and by a great war with Russia.

In her interference with the policy of Japan, Russia was supported by both Germany and France. England, however, manifested no unfriendly disposition toward the claims of the victorious Japanese, who, notwithstanding their late military and naval success, did not feel equal to a conflict with the three great European powers, especially as the resources of their country were somewhat exhausted by the recent war. It was after this opposition of the European states that Japan commenced seriously to develop her material resources. Her progress was more rapid than at

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Cause of the recent war with China? Its leading events and result? What power then checkmated Japan? Japan since the war? What powers supported Russia in her interference with the policy of Japan? What was the attitude of England? What was the result in Japan of European opposition?

any previous period of her history. Indeed, it is doubtful whether any nation has ever made in a short time progress so remarkable.

The principal advantage of the intervention of the Powers was gained by Russia, who, with French assistance, raised for China the sum of $80,000,000, to enable her to pay a part of her war indemnity to Japan. In return, China permitted the construction of a railroad connecting the Siberian Railway with points in Manchuria, and later with Port Arthur, which Russia leased for a period of twenty-five years. Thus did Russia obtain a foothold in the very territory which Japan had won in her war with China, and which was surrendered in order to preserve peace in the East. On the Pacific, Russia already possessed the port of Vladivostock, but in severe weather that is often closed by ice. Therefore, she desired a harbor farther south, hence the leasing of Port Arthur and other places. Their occupation was regarded as a menace to the safety of Japan, and would result, it was feared, in Russianizing the great Chinese province of Manchuria.

It was both the interest and inclination of the United States to prevent the dismemberment of the Chinese Empire; our government, therefore, held that all nations should have equal opportunity for engaging in commercial enterprises in that country. This principle has been called the "open-door."

An anti-foreign war, known as the Boxer uprising, broke out in China about this time. Japan assisted America, and the European powers, in its suppression. Peking, the capital of the Empire, was taken by the allies on August 14, 1900. In discipline and in gallantry the Japanese troops were surpassed by none. The timely entrance into Peking of the allied forces saved from massacre great numbers of Christians, who had been besieged by a mob.

While these events were in progress around Peking, Rus-

What can you say of her progress? Who was the chief gainer by the intervention of the Powers? For her financial aid, what did China do for Russia? What port did Russia possess on the Pacific? What were the disadvantages of that port? What other places did she then obtain? How was the policy of Russia regarded by Japan? What was the attitude of the United States toward the difficulties in the Orient? What principle was known as the "open door?" How was the Boxer uprising in China suppressed? What was an important result of foreign intervention in Chinese affairs?

sian troops in considerable force poured into Manchuria. The Chinese Boxers had inflicted some damage upon railroad property, interrupted navigation, bombarded a Russian city across the Amur, and had murdered about eighty Russians. The troops of the Czar soon overran the whole province. The allied powers, however, were assured that Russia would evacuate the country as soon as order was restored. Nevertheless, she continued to strengthen herself, and by December, 1900, held many strategic points. Lack of harmony among the Powers allowed her to remain in occupation of Manchuria.

Russia was soon suspected of a purpose to establish over this part of the Chinese Empire a protectorate. Japan at once became alarmed and communicated with both the United States and Great Britain; other powers were then taken into confidence, and a protest made to Russia. That nation, however, declared that her action was only the first step toward evacuation. In April, 1901, Japan forwarded to Russia a message somewhat firm in character, and reiterating a former request that the matter of the Czar's activity in Manchuria be left to the settlement of the allied Powers. Russia, however, replied that for the present she intended to maintain her military occupation of that province, and later asked China for certain mining concessions there. Japan, Great Britain, and the United States protested against granting them. The last-named power being in favor of the "open door," opposed the grant of exclusive privileges in Manchuria to any company or any nation, and a note from Secretary Hay so informed the governments of both China and Russia. The latter merely repeated her former professions, and expressed a wish to maintain the "open door."

On January 30, 1902, occurred an event of great importance; that was the conclusion of an Anglo-Japanese alliance. These nations disavowed any aggressive policy towards China and Korea, and agreed that if in defence of their interests in those countries either power should become involved in war, the other would remain neutral and endeavor to prevent other

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In what manner did Russia take advantage of the pre-occupation of the other powers? What province of China did Russia occupy? How did Japan regard the Russian occupation of Manchuria? What did Russia do when Japan protested? What demand did she make upon China? What powers protested against the granting of special privileges to Russia? When was the Anglo-Japanese alliance concluded? What was its nature?

states from joining in hostilities against its ally. If, however, another nation did unite in such hostilities, they would wage a common war. The agreement was to remain in force for a term of five years. Relative to the object of this alliance, Russia and France asserted that it was in harmony with their own wishes; but they reserved to themselves the right to take measures for the defence of their mutual interests.

On April 8, 1902, was concluded a Russo-Chinese convention, by which Russia agreed to evacuate Manchuria, provided China would protect in that province Russian railways and Russian subjects, as well as their enterprises. The evacuation was to be completed within eighteen months. This agreement appeared to prove the sincerity of Russia's promises, and they seemed on the point of fulfillment, when, in October, 1902, she withdrew her troops from certain places in the province. The departure of other forces, which was fixed for April, 1903, did not, however, take place, and it was claimed that the evacuation of 1902 was no more than a concentration of troops at new points. At this stage Russia astonished diplomatic circles by a series of new demands on China. Japan, Great Britain, and the United States protested. Our government had been negotiating with China for the opening of new ports in Manchuria, and among the latest demands of Russia was one that bound China to open in that region no new mart to foreign trade. On inquiry by our Secretary of State, Russia replied that her demands had been much misrepresented by the newspapers.

For three or four years after 1895, the influence of Japan as well as Russia fluctuated considerably in Korea. For a time Russian influence prevailed; at other periods Japan was dominant in that kingdom. By several agreements they recognized the sovereignty and independence of Korea, and promised not to interfere in its internal affairs. Japanese commerce in that country having greatly increased, Russia agreed not to impede it. Nevertheless, she endeavored, in a diplomatic way, to weaken the influence of her rival. Both powers pressed Korea for trading and other privileges. In April, 1903, Russia began to improve a timber concession that she claimed to have secured. To defend this forest

What was the Russo-Chinese convention of 1902? Did Russia perform her part of the agreement? Were the policies of Russia and the United States in accord? What powers influenced Korea after 1895? What was their agreement? What happened in April, 1903?

land, forty-seven Russian soldiers arrived on the Yalu in May of the same year. These were soon reinforced by other detachments; they seized a tract of land, and, notwithstanding the protest of Korea, began to fortify themselves.

This situation made it necessary for Japan to deal directly with the government of the Czar concerning the integrity of the Chinese Empire and the independence of Korea. The diplomatic correspondence between Japan and Russia was long drawn out, and would be tedious even to summarize. It is sufficient to state that Japan had important commercial interests in Manchuria. In the event of its annexation by Russia, these interests could scarcely escape injury, and, moreover, the independence of Korea would be threatened. Negotiations were greatly protracted, apparently by the policy of Russia, and at length broken off, February 5, 1904, by Japan. This rather unexpected step preceded a long and bloody war.

Hostilities began before war was formally declared by either government. A small Russian force entered the kingdom of Korea, but the Japanese were even more prompt. On February 9, 1904, one of their squadrons engaged off the Korean harbor of Chemulpo two Russian vessels, which were greatly damaged. To prevent their capture they were subsequently destroyed by the Russians.

At the moment when diplomatic relations were broken off the Russian fleet on the Pacific coast was divided into several squadrons, stationed at widely distant points. It was the policy of Japan to prevent their union and destroy them separately; then she could leisurely load her transports with soldiers and munitions of war, and in perfect security land them at convenient points in the disputed territory. Though somewhat interrupted, this programme was substantially followed out. In its execution, however, there were several terrible sea-fights. Some of these will be briefly noticed.

The destruction of the Russian vessels at Chemulpo was merely an incident of the first naval movements. The main fleet, under Vice-Admiral Togo, sailed toward Port Arthur,

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How did Japan act in the emergency? Why did Japan fear Russian activity in Korea? When did she break off diplomatic negotiations? What naval battle occurred on February 9, 1904? What was the condition of the Russian Pacific fleet when the rupture occurred? What was the naval policy of Japan? Did she ultimately carry out her programme? Who commanded the Japanese fleet, and what was his first serious movement?

where, on February 9th, in a severe engagement, at least half a dozen Russian war vessels were badly damaged. On the following day both Emperors declared war. In these proclamations each government sought to fix upon the other the responsibility for the appeal to arms.

During the early months of the war a succession of night attacks by the Japanese inflicted much injury upon the Russian squadron at Port Arthur. On April 13, Admiral Makarov engaged the Japanese fleet, and in returning to the harbor his vessel struck a mine, which exploded. It sank immediately, carrying down the admiral and six hundred men. The Japanese, however, did not altogether escape in these conflicts. In the course of the war they lost five or six vessels and many seamen. Ultimately, most of the Russian ships of war were captured, sunk or disarmed. This gave to Japan complete command of the sea.

On land the forces of Japan were equally successful. In the last days of April and the beginning of May, General Kuroki defeated the Russians in a battle on the Yalu river. By August he had forced them northward toward Liao-yang. General Oku had been no less successful. He united his army with that of Kuroki; both were subsequently reënforced by General Nodzu. The entire Japanese army, under Marshal Oyama, numbered probably two hundred and forty thousand men. The Russian commander, General Kuropatkin, occupied Liao-yang with an army of about two hundred thousand. The Russians had lost twenty-five thousand men, and the Japanese about half that number, in a week's savage fighting. At Mukden, to which Kuropatkin had retreated, he recruited his army, and turned back to attack the forces of Japan. In the battles from October 5th to the 17th, on the Sha river, the Russian losses amounted to more than sixty-nine thousand, while those of the Japanese were estimated as slightly exceeding thirteen thousand.

From June, 1904, till the beginning of the following year, another of the Mikado's armies, under General Nogi, had besieged Port Arthur; after the most desperate fighting the

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What was the result of the sea-fight of April 13th? Did the Japanese sustain any losses in the naval engagements of the war? What progress did the Japanese land forces make? What battle was fought in April and the beginning of May? What was the size of the armies, and the nature of the fighting near Liao-yang? What were the Russian losses on the Sha river? Did the Japanese sustain any losses? Describe the siege of Port Arthur and its result upon the advance army of Japan.

Russian commander, General Stoessel, surrendered that important stronghold on January 4th. This great victory released Nogi's army of sixty thousand men, which soon started northward to join Oyama in the campaign against Kuropatkin.

At Mukden, in one of the greatest battles of history, four hundred thousand Japanese, accustomed to victory, attacked three hundred and fifty thousand Russians, who had known little except defeat. From February 20th till March 16th the awful conflict raged. The Russians were compelled to retire, and portions of their fine army were routed. Their losses in this series of battles aggregated one hundred and fifty thousand, while the victors lost at least fifty thousand men. The Czar removed Kuropatkin from the command, and appointed General Linevitch to reorganize the shattered army. This officer had conducted his retreat in good order.

In all this fighting the Russians, who gained some minor advantages, displayed no less bravery than the dauntless army of Japan. Owing to their command of the sea, however, and to their nearness to the fields of battle, it was possible for the Japanese to send troops to such places and in such numbers as appeared to be necessary. Russia, on the other hand, was six thousand miles away, and both men and supplies had to be sent over a single line of railway. Where courage seemed equal, superior numbers, discipline, and equipment prevailed.

After the naval reverses mentioned above, the hopes of the Czar were based upon the Baltic fleet. With its aid it was expected that Russia might retrieve some of her losses in Eastern waters. Under Admiral Rojestvensky a powerful fleet, which left Europe in October, 1904, arrived in May, 1905, in sight of the Japanese fleet, commanded by Admiral Togo, who had hitherto proved invincible. On the 27th they joined battle in the Sea of Japan. The destruction of the Russian armament was almost complete. Of eighteen thousand sailors, about twelve thousand sank, with their ships. The loss of the Japanese was reported as one hundred and sixteen killed, and something over five hundred wounded. In the fighting of May 27 and 28, the Russians lost six battle-

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What were the Russian losses around Mukden? What new commander was appointed? What were the disadvantages of Russia in this war, and what were the advantages of Japan? Explain Japan's success. What was the last hope of Russia? Describe the fate of Russia's Baltic fleet.

ships and sixteen other vessels, five being cruisers. The Japanese lost only three torpedo boats, but they captured some battleships and cruisers. Many Russian vessels which escaped from the fight were dismantled in neutral ports. For the time, this battle practically destroyed the sea-power of Russia.

At this stage of the war Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States, used his good offices to bring the awful conflict to a close. His offer of mediation led to the meeting, August 8, 1905, at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, of commissioners representing both belligerents.

On September 5th the articles of the treaty were signed by the envoys. It proved, however, very unsatisfactory to the people of Japan, who had expected greater results from their complete success, and to the people of Russia, who believed that its terms were humiliating. While the losses of the Japanese navy were comparatively slight, its army, though everywhere successful, suffered terribly. There were indications that the resources of Japan were being rapidly exhausted. Taxation in that Empire was becoming excessive. Then, too, internal disorder compelled Russia to keep at home a very large and fine army. Indeed, she never had in the field anything like the force which, in normal conditions, she could send to the front. These facts, no less than the influence of the United States, enable one to understand the sudden cessation of the conflict.

The results of the war may be concisely stated. Russia acknowledged the paramount political, military, and economic interests of Japan in the kingdom of Korea, and agreed not to interfere with them. Her own subjects there were to be placed on a footing of equality with the citizens or subjects of other nations; both powers engaged to evacuate Manchuria, to preserve there the "open door," and to guarantee the integrity of the Chinese Empire. Japan also acquired the Russian lease of Port Arthur, and other points in that peninsula, and received from Russia the southern part of Sakhalin Island. Her subjects were thereafter permitted to take fish on the Siberian coasts.

It is scarcely necessary to state, that the taxes resulting from the war with Russia are still felt by the people of Japan.

What was the consequence of its loss? What was the share of President Roosevelt in bringing about peace? When was the treaty of Portsmouth signed? How was it regarded by the two powers interested? What conditions in each country made for peace? What were the principal results of the war?

Nevertheless, their loyalty to the government prevents any open manifestations of discontent. In 1907 the country suffered much from fire and flood. Large sums are spent annually in an effort to make the army and navy still more efficient. Japanese authority appears to be firmly established in Korea, though the natives are uneasy under foreign rule, and on some occasions have risen up against them.

8. Siam. — The Siamese came to their present country from the north, probably from China, and first appear in history about 575 A. D. About the year 638, Buddhism was introduced among them. In the thirteenth century they had reached their present location. Ayuthia became their capital in 1350, and continued so until 1782, when the government removed to Bangkok. For many centuries they had been at war with the Burmese, Regnans, Cambodians, and the people whom they displaced, with varying fortunes, but final success. Between 1592 and 1632 many Japanese settled in Siam as traders, but were soon expelled. Similar were their relations with the French, which began in 1684. The present dynasty succeeded a Chinese one in 1782, and the former soon conquered Shan and Laos. Civilization has made considerable progress under the last three monarchs, the last two of whom, being highly educated, followed out a broad-minded policy. Siam is weak, however, and, wedged in as it is between British and French possessions, probably owes its continued existence to the jealousy of these great European powers. In 1895, France wrested territory on the Mekong from Siam, England protesting in vain against this action.

9. French Indo-China.—The countries now forming the large colonial possessions of France on the Gulf of Siam and the China Sea have a complicated and varied history, as they were sometimes separate countries and sometimes united in various ways. They are Cambodia, Annam, Cochin-China, and Tonquin. But the last two were most of the time subordinate to the second, and the third for a while to the first. Cambodia, which adjoins Siam, on the southeast, was an ancient and at one time, powerful and independent kingdom,

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What has been the condition of Japan since the war with Russia? —8. Whence came the Siamese, and when? Their first capital, and how long? Their wars? Relations with Japanese and French? Change of dynasty? Character of recent rulers? Relations with France and England?—9. Of what countries is French Indo-China made up? What is said of Cambodia?

at least thirteen centuries old. Its ruins betray evidences of high civilization. It fell under the control of the Annamites late in the eighteenth century, owing to internal dissensions, and they, in 1809, divided it between themselves and Siam. The first Christian missionary here was Father Santa Cruz, a Dominican, in the middle of the sixteenth century. Annam, which included the vassal kingdom of Cochin-China, was settled probably from south China, and was in a state of vassalage to other nations, especially the Chinese, until the tenth century. Then it became practically an independent monarchy, and so remained until the French conquest. In 1787, the king of Cochin-China made a treaty of alliance with France, with a small cession of territory. This action gave to France a predominant influence, which was greatly diminished by the French revolution. Yet Christianity made considerable progress there until 1820, when a party hostile to foreigners prevailed, and a violent persecution of Christians in both Cambodia and Annam broke out. Annam ceded three provinces to France in 1862, and three more in 1867. In 1872, two ports were opened to foreign commerce. France conquered the large, fertile, and populous province of Tonquin, adjoining China, in 1884, and two years later established a protectorate over the whole of Annam, which it has since annexed.

10. Australasia.—We here limit this name to Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, which opens the twentieth century as a new federation of British colonies. Australia was discovered by the Dutch and the Spaniards between 1601 and 1606. Captain Cook explored the eastern coast in 1770, and took possession for England. In 1788, the first settlement was established in New South Wales, Botany Bay soon following as a penal colony, to which many Irish political prisoners were transported in 1798 and following years, among them the first priests in Australia. West Australia, which is still a penal colony, was set apart in 1829, South Australia in 1834, Victoria in 1851, Queensland in 1859, and North Australia and Alexandraland within the last few years. Each has a distinct government, a parliament of two houses, and a governor appointed by the crown. A federation bill came under

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Of Annam? When and how did French influence begin? What happened in 1820? When did France begin to take possession? What happened in 1884 and 1886?—10. What is meant here by Australasia? When was Australia discovered? Beginning of English colonization? Of each of the colonies?

consideration in 1893, but did not succeed. The plan was revived in a modified form in 1899, and has been adopted. Though explorations of the interior were begun in 1828, but little is as yet known of that region, especially Alexandra-land. Tasmania was discovered by Tasman in 1642, and circumnavigated by Bass and Flanders in 1798. The first settlement on the island was made from Sydney in 1803, and a penal colony was established at Hobart the following year. There were serious conflicts with the natives, and in 1825 the prosperity of the island was endangered from a number of escaped convicts. That year it was made a colony independent of New South Wales. After repeated protests the penal colony was abolished in 1853. Its government is similar to that of the Australian colonies. New Zealand was discovered in 1642 by Tasman. Cook visited these islands several times between 1769 and 1777, circumnavigated and partially explored them. The country was little visited because of the bad repute given of the natives. A mission was established on the North Island in 1814, by the Rev. Samuel Marsden. Others of his calling followed, and in a generation the entire population was nominally Christian. By treaty with the natives, sovereignty was ceded to England in 1840, and in that year five ship-loads of immigrants were sent out to the islands. There were disputes and disturbances with the natives afterwards, the most serious taking place in 1863-64. Their final and complete surrender took place in 1875. The present constitutional form of government was established in 1875, and woman suffrage was adopted in 1893.

What of the interior? Of federation? What is said of Tasmania? Disturbances there? End of its penal colony? Who discovered New Zealand? Who first explored it? Missions there? Acquired by England? Its present government?

AFRICA

If there be any longer a dark continent on the face of our planet, that continent is not Africa, with the interior of which we are now much better acquainted than we are with that of South America. The epithet was indeed true of it a little more than a generation ago; then the map showed a blank almost everywhere except a narrow fringe along the coast, practically the same as it did in the sixteenth century; now its great rivers and their tributaries have been explored to their sources, its lakes navigated, its mountains measured, and the greater part of its lands appropriated for colonial use by European governments, chiefly by France and England. For four centuries Europeans were engaged in taking Africans from Africa to sell them into slavery in America; for four decades they have been far more industrious in taking Africa from the Africans, until little is left that has not been appropriated. The independent states are few and small; the dependent provinces and colonies many and large. Of the former, and a very few of the latter, we will treat first, and then close this chapter with a general view of the continent. Let us begin with the oldest of African nations, perhaps the oldest in the world, of which we have any record.

1. EGYPT.—The ancient history of this country, down to its organization as a Roman province, B. C. 30, has already been discussed. Falling under the dominion of Constantinople by the final partition of the Roman Empire at the death of Theodosius the Great, in 395 A. D., it so remained until conquered by the Mohammedan Arabs in 640. They wrought fearful havoc there, besides the burning of perhaps the greatest library then in the world, that of Alexandria. They held it until 1250, when began the rule of the Mameluke Sultans, which was ended in 1517, when the Turks conquered the country. Egypt was invaded by the French under Napoleon in 1798; and, after the defeat of the Mamelukes in the battle of the Pyramids that year, remained in their possession until their failure at Acre. When, in 1801, they thus lost hold in the East, Turkey, with the aid of England, once more

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What change has recently taken place in regard to this continent? Its present condition?—1. When did Mohammedan domination begin in Egypt? What changes in 1250 and 1517? And in 1798?

acquired the ascendency. Control was then gained by the famous Mehemet Ali, who was made Pasha of Egypt in 1804. He substantially made the country independent of Turkey. Not satisfied with this, he invaded and conquered Syria in 1830, and later threw off the merely nominal yoke by which he was bound to the Sultan. In 1839 he defeated an army sent against him by his former suzerain. Then the great powers of Europe interfered, and in 1841 Egypt was once more reduced to the condition of a Turkish viceroyalty. In 1867, the title of the ruler, Ismail, was changed from Pasha to Khedive. It was in his time that the Suez Canal, connecting the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, was constructed, under the direction of the great French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps. Under Ismail's extravagant rule taxes became so oppressive that people refused to pay them. They finally rose in revolt in August, 1879, and drove the Khedive from power. His son, Mohamed Tewfik, who succeeded him, found the finances so confused that he had to call in the aid of European governments. To England and France control was then given of all the revenues. This arrangement led to another revolt in the spring of 1882. It was headed by Arabi Pasha, the minister of war. Early in July the insurgents attacked the English fleet lying near Alexandria; but the British answered the assault so effectively with a bombardment of the city that on the 11th they were able to land an army. Two months later they defeated Arabi in a hard-fought battle at Tel-el-Kebir, after which they reinstated Tewfik in power. The British then took hold of the finances. Next came the revolt of the Soudan province, under an able leader, known as the Mahdi, or Prophet, and to that region General Charles ("Chinese") Gordon was sent in 1884, with a small force. Inadequately supported, he took up his quarters in Khartoum, and while waiting there for reinforcements, was overwhelmed by the Soudanese, who put him and most of his band to death in January, 1885, and reduced the few survivors to slavery. Among these were priests and nuns. Occasionally one of them escaped to tell the horrors of their experience. Over thirteen years were to elapse before this disaster was avenged. The Soudan was temporarily abandoned,

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Who was Mehemet Ali? When and how did his power end? What change was made in 1867? When was the Suez Canal built? What happened in 1879, and why? How was the Anglo-French control brought about? Who was Arabi Pasha and what did he do? What led to the Khartoum disaster?

to become the scene of civil war among the native tribes. During this turmoil the Mahdi was taken from the scene, and after him came another brutal and fanatical tyrant, who assumed the title of Khalifa. Tewfik died in 1892, and was succeeded by his son Abbas, the present Khedive. At last, in 1897, preparations were begun to avenge the death of Gordon and his companions. Late that year a strong expedition started up the Nile, under the command of General Sir Herbert Kitchener. After some months of slow travelling and occasional skirmishing towards the end, he came up with the Khalifa and his whole force at Omdurman, west of the Nile and almost opposite Khartoum, where he gave the Soudanese battle and routed them with the slaughter of more than half their army. The Khalifa fled with a very small force to some friendly tribe southwest of his former dominions. Thus at one blow was the Soudan regained. The Fashoda incident with Major Marchand is referred to in our account of France.

During the year 1899, the Khalifa was killed, and the remnant of his forces annihilated. His lieutenant, Osman Digna, again escaped. Thereafter Egypt was free to pursue her career in peace. The people, however, were still oppressed by debts, and to prevent their falling into the hands of usurers the government began loaning money to cultivators. In the autumn these sums were repaid with a slight interest. The policy of irrigation was continued, and the finances showed signs of improvement.

In 1898, was commenced, at Assouan, the construction of a great dam across the Nile. It was to be completed in five years, and paid for by the Egyptian government in installments extending over a period of thirty years. There were also planned irrigation works on a large scale.

In the decade from 1897-1907, the population increased from nine million eight hundred and twenty-one thousand and forty-five to eleven million two hundred and seventy-two thousand. Both the cotton crop and the sugar-cane crop have declined. This falling off has been ascribed to a succession of very dry seasons. By raising the Assouan dam twenty-three

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When was the Soudan reconquered? Who was the hero and what the battle of that campaign? What happened in 1899? What was the result of the Khalifa's overthrow? What was the nature of the government aid? What great public improvement was begun in 1898? Describe conditions from 1897-1907.

feet it is expected that nine hundred and fifty thousand acres of sterile soil will be brought under cultivation. This great work has already submerged a number of interesting temples. With a view to their use as great reservoirs for the irrigation of Egypt and the Soudan, the lakes of equatorial Africa have been examined. This project, of course, will require the coöperation of Abyssinia.

The military power of Great Britain has imposed peace upon the people of both Egypt and the Soudan. With the completion of the projected systems of irrigation, agriculture is bound to improve. Though there was in 1908 some restlessness among the tribes of Khordofan, and even some fighting with them, the danger of a great war has passed away. Once relieved from the payment of war taxes, the financial condition of the people is certain to change for the better. The large military appropriations can hereafter be devoted to productive improvements.

In the year 1900, important discoveries in antiquities were made at Abydos. The drinking bowls and the furniture of the first dynasty have been found. Since that date other interesting memorials of ancient Egyptian civilization have been brought to light. In 1908, German archæologists completed their excavations of a temple at Abusir. This splendid structure was devoted to the cult of the dead. Remains of the first three dynasties have been found at Gizeh. In the oasis of Kharga, it is believed that there will be discovered important material for a re-study of the Græco-Roman period, perhaps for the early Christian era.

Of an immense number of recent discoveries, the most interesting is that of Brugsch, who found a hieroglyphic record of the seven years of famine described in the Bible. In the inscription it is told how "the Nile did not overflow for seven years, and how, as a result, the vegetation withered, the crops failed, and famine, pestilence, and misery devastated the country." The date of this inscription is 1700 B. C., which approximates the time given in Genesis.

What is expected from the raising of the Assouan dam? What other irrigation projects have been considered? What has been accomplished by British military force? What will result from peace in Egypt and the Soudan? What archæologal discoveries were made in 1900? What important excavation was completed in 1908? What discoveries are expected in the oasis of Kharga? Describe the hieroglyphic record of the seven years of famine. How does it agree with the account in Genesis?

The natives of Egypt are divided into two political parties, viz., the Nationalists, and the party of Constitutional Reform. The former demands nothing less than the immediate evacuation of Egypt by the British. The rival element would maintain the authority of the Khedive; they also favor the establishment of a parliament, and the complete control by Egyptians of all Egyptian interests; general and free primary education; the use of the Arabic language in government schools; the appointment of natives, when they are qualified, to government posts, so that gradually the country's affairs will be removed from foreign hands.

2. Algeria.—Following the course of Moslem conquest along North Africa we pass Tripoli, which is still a Turkish province of no special importance—the ancient Lybia—except the portion of it known as Barca, and for the present, Tunis, representing nearly the territory of ancient Carthage, we come to Algeria, which includes ancient Numidia. Conquered by the Vandals in the middle of the fifth century, it was regained under Justinian, and held by his successors until it fell into the hands of the Saracens, late in the seventh century. A long era of barbarism followed. In 1516, the Corsair Barbarossa's pirates were called in to give help against Spain. They then became masters of the country, and soon afterwards acknowledged the suzerainty of Turkey. The Algerine pirates became the terror of the whole Mediterranean coast of Europe for three centuries. Allegiance to Turkey was renewed by them in 1705, and their piracies grew more audacious for the next hundred years. Partially checked by Napoleon, they returned to their bloody work afterwards, but were brought to terms by the United States in 1815. France was the next power to attack them. After a three years' blockade of their ports, the French captured Algiers on July 5, 1830. From that time on there was constant fighting for forty years. But their opposition was not formidable after the loss of the great Arab leader, Abd-el-Kader. By 1870 France had extended its dominion from Tunis to Morocco, and from the sea to the Atlas mountains. A serious rebellion was suppressed in 1871, after which Algeria

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What division of political sentiment exists in Egypt? What are the demands of each party?—2. What ancient countries are represented by Tripoli, Tunis, and Algeria? When was Algeria conquered by the Moslems? How long did its great piracy record last? Who first checked it? Who eventually put it down? What is the extent of French conquest in North Africa?

was put under civil government. Since then the French have crossed the mountains, subdued the Kabyles and the Tuaregs, and extended their sway across the desert to the Atlantic Ocean, and to their other possessions on the Niger, including even the long, mysterious Timbuctoo. In 1881, France began a war with Tunis, which had been independent from the twelfth to the sixteenth century, when it also became a terror to all nations. It fell nominally under Turkish dominion in 1574, but was virtually independent again in 1871, by reason of an imperial decree. The French invasion of 1881 resulted in the establishment of a protectorate over the country, which is now practically a French province.

3. Morocco.—This crumbling relic of barbarism is the larger part of ancient Mauritania, the home of the mediæval Moors. It was conquered by the Arabs at the end of the seventh and the beginning of the eighth centuries, and later on its people followed the Arabs to Spain and founded kingdoms there. The kingdom of Fez was founded in 787, and that of Morocco in 1058. In 1561 a new dynasty was started, which, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, had extended its sway over all Morocco and as far south as Timbuctoo. King Sebastian, of Portugal, invaded the country in 1578, and within less than two years he and his army had not only been beaten, but had disappeared. A temporary division of the empire, in the seventeenth century, led to the establishment, in 1658, of a new dynasty, the present one, by Muley Sherif el Feleli. In 1787 the reigning Sultan made a treaty of peace with the United States. In 1814, the enslaving of Christians was prohibited, and piracy was suppressed in 1817. A commercial treaty was concluded with the United States in 1836. The Moors aided Abd-el-Kader against the French in 1844, and in consequence their city of Tangier was bombarded. The French treated Sale in like fashion in 1851, in retaliation for the plunder of a ship; and in 1859, as a punishment for depredations, they made an incursion into Morocco from Algiers. This same year Spain went to war with the country on account of piracy by the Riff tribesmen on the north coast. On February 16, 1860, Tetuan surrendered to Marshal O'Donnell after a battle, and a treaty was

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When was Tunis conquered by France?—3. What was the ancient name of Morocco? When were Mohammedan kingdoms and dynasties founded here? What disaster occurred in Morocco in 1578-80? When did the present dynasty accede? Relations of Morocco with the United States? Troubles with France? What war in 1859-60?

signed in April. England advanced a loan in 1861 to the Sultan to enable him to meet his engagements with Spain. There was an insurrection of Berbes in 1871, when the Spanish port of Melilla was attacked. Muley Hassan became Sultan in 1873. In 1893, the Riffs began again to attack the Spanish colonies. A stubborn war ensued, in which the Riffs were finally worsted. Muley Hassan died in 1894, and was succeeded by his son, a mere boy, Muley Abdul Aziz.

A conference of the Powers, held January 16th to April 7th, 1906, at Algeciras, commissioned France and Spain to maintain order on the Moroccan coast. This was no empty honor. In July, 1907, when, pursuant to the agreement, the French attempted to assume control of the customs of the ports, there was an outbreak at Casablanca. European laborers in the quarries were killed and mutilated by the angry tribesmen. After this they plundered the town and retired. In August, 1907, when the French and Spanish forces landed to protect the place, they were fired upon. A punitive expedition into the interior has been partially successful.

On January 11, 1908, Mulai Hafid was proclaimed Sultan, instead of his brother, Muley Abdul Aziz, who was deposed. The latter, however, was not entirely overthrown till midsummer. For France the pursuit and punishment of the tribesmen was expensive. Perhaps Mulai Hafid was encouraged by Germany's note to the Powers asking for his recognition as Sultan. This action aroused much criticism in the French press. The duty that devolved upon France was becoming constantly more serious. In November, 1908, three Germans deserted from the Foreign Legion in Casablanca. They were seized by French officers, probably in the German legation. Germany demanded an apology; France refused, but agreed to publish with Germany a simultaneous apology. War was avoided partly in consequence of the attitude of Great Britain, which supported France, and partly because a certain German sentiment agreed to have the dispute adjusted by The Hague tribunal. The arbitration court has recently decided that both nations committed offences against international law. During 1908, there was no further trouble.

Further troubles with Spain? What change in 1894? What important action respecting Morocco was taken by the Algeciras convention? What led to the French and Spanish expedition into the interior? What event occurred early in 1908? What encouraged the usurping Sultan? How did France regard Germany's policy? What was the Casablanca affair? How was it settled?

In September and October the French officers were withdrawn. The new Sultan had been previously recognized.

In July, 1907, a bandit chief, Raisuli, captured Kaid Sir Harry McLean, and held him for ransom. In exchange for prisoners and a sum of money, £20,000, he was set free on February 6th following. Upon this Raisuli and twenty-eight of his relatives became British subjects.

4. Abyssinia.—The population of this ancient kingdom seems to be a mixture of races, including at least Arabs, Jewish refugees during the era of the captivity, and Egyptians. Greeks, too, established colonies in Ethiopia under the Ptolemies, and brought their arts with them. The kingdom of Auxume, in the first and second centuries of our era, was almost co-extensive with modern Abyssinia. Christianity was introduced between 330 and 360, and in 470 a large company of monks established themselves there. Being subject to the Coptic hierarchy, the Abyssinians fell into heresy with it, and still profess a corrupted form of Christianity. In the sixth century the Abyssinians conquered Yemen, in south-western Arabia, which they held for nearly seventy years. In 960, a Jewish princess named Judith, claiming descent from the Queen of Sheba and Solomon, gained the throne, which remained to her descendants until 1268, when it reverted to the old royal line. Portuguese missionaries reached the country towards the end of the fifteenth century. From 1528 to 1540 the country was overrun by Mohammedan armies, and the Portuguese were called in to give aid against them. Jesuit missions then flourished until 1633, when the missionaries were expelled. Nothing of special interest occurred from that time until the reign of King Theodore, when an incident happened that brought temporary disaster. He ascended the throne in 1855, and extended the boundaries of his realm. He took Englishmen into his favor, and wrote a letter to Queen Victoria, to which he received no reply. Then, in revenge for this act of disrespect, he imprisoned the English residents, on account of which act a large English force was sent to Abyssinia in 1867. This army laid siege to his capital, Magdala, and captured it in

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What British subject was kidnaped and held for ransom? How was it settled?—4. What may be said of ancient Abyssinia? What name did it bear at one time? When was Christianity introduced? What of Queen Judith and her family? What happened in the sixteenth century? Until when did the Jesuit Missions flourish? What happened in 1867-68?

1868; but when, on April 13th, they entered the citadel, King Theodore had committed suicide. His death was followed by anarchy, until Prince Kassai, of Tigré, made himself master of the country in 1872, and proclaimed himself king under the name of John II. He ruled prosperously until 1888, when, after gaining a signal victory over the Egyptians, he was defeated and slain in a battle with the Soudanese. Then, in 1889, Menelek II, king of Shoa, who claimed lineal descent from Queen Judith, succeeded in gaining the crown, with the aid of Italy, which he was destined in a few years to humiliate. In 1885, Italy had founded the colony of Massoweh, afterwards called Eritria, which shut off Abyssinia from the coast. In 1895, the Italians, claiming a protectorate over Abyssinia, proceeded to annex the province of Tigré. They invaded the country, and Menelek had prepared to resist. After varying success and reverses their main army was overwhelmingly defeated under General Baratieri, at Adua, on March 1, 1896. The country was then evacuated, and the protectorate given up. Since then Menelek has extended his dominions toward the south and southeast.

5. The Cape Colony.—The Dutch were the first Europeans to colonize the extreme southern region of Africa. They founded Cape Town in 1652, and their colony prospered moderately, until it was captured by the English in 1806, to whom it was formally ceded in 1815. The peace of the colonists was often disturbed by the hostility of the Kaffirs and others. The abolition of slavery by England, in 1834, led to wholesale migrations of the Boers, which will be noticed directly. In 1866, Kaffraria was annexed; in 1868, part of the Basuto country; in 1880, the province of Griqualand West; and since then immense tracts of country extending far northward. In 1879, was waged the war against the Zulus, in which the prince imperial, son of the French Emperor, Napoleon III, lost his life.

6. The Orange River and Transvaal Colonies.—These recently independent republics had their origin in the Boer, or Dutch exodus of 1835, referred to above. They first

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What was the character and fate of King John II? Who succeeded him? What led to war with Italy? What was its result? —5. When and by whom was Cape Colony founded? When did it come into the possession of England? What have been its troubles? What its chief accessions?—6. What was the origin of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal republic?

organized a state in 1840, in a territory that England soon annexed to her colony of Natal. Then, to escape English rule, they migrated farther north, having to fight their way against the natives. Some of them founded a colony between the Orange and the Vaal rivers, which was organized as the Orange Free State. It declared its independence in 1854. The rest settled north of the latter river, whence their state was commonly known as the Transvaal Republic. This commonwealth was founded in 1849, and its independence was formally recognized by Great Britain in 1852. It was, however, annexed by England on April 12, 1877; but in December, 1880, the Boers rose in arms, and, after their victories at Laing's Neck and Majuba Hill, peace was signed in March, 1881. This was supplemented by a treaty in February, 1884, which recognized full independence, except in relations with foreign powers. In spite of this a raid, led by Dr. Jameson, aimed to overthrow the Boer government, but it failed signally in January, 1896. Since then difficulties in regard to naturalization arose. War followed, and England annexed both countries in 1900. (See p. 307.)

7. The Congo Free State.—This new country, the independent sovereignty of which was recognized in 1884, had its origin from companies formed for trade. The first of them was the African International Association, founded in 1877; and in 1878, after the explorer Stanley's return to Europe, another society was formed to study the country. This became the International Association of the Congo, which sent Stanley up the river. Much exploration was done, and the result of reports made was the action of 1884, leaving with the king of the Belgians the power either to annex or to declare the state independent after the year 1900. (See p. 425.)

8. The Partition of Africa.—Only one independent state in Africa remains unnoticed, and that is the insignificant republic of Liberia, on the west coast. It was founded in 1821-2, for free negroes from the United States, and has not been a success. Its original territory has, indeed, been considerably cut down, until now it contains only fourteen thousand square miles. The most ancient of European colonies

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When was their independence recognized by England? What did England do in 1877? What followed? What happened in January, 1896? What has been the latest difficulty?—7. What was the origin of the Congo Free State? When was its sovereignty declared? What has been done with it?—8. What about Liberia?

have also been passed over because of their insignificance. They are those of Portugal, on the southwest and southeast coasts; and all that need be said of them is contained in a survey of the recent condition of Africa made by Mayo W. Hazeltine, in reviewing a book that has been published on the subject. He says: "One of the extraordinary phenomena of the last half of the nineteenth century is the suddenness with which the long impenetrable secrets of the Dark Continent have been disclosed. So far as the interior of Africa was concerned, the maps made as late as forty years ago told us but very little more than did those constructed three hundred and fifty years earlier, when the rounding of the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese had been made known to the geographers. With the exception of a thin fringe on the western and eastern coasts, the whole body of the continent between the limits of the Cape Colony and the countries bordering the Mediterranean was almost entirely unknown. All the immense additions that have since been made to our knowledge of inner Africa are mainly due to the explorations which began with Livingstone's journey to the Zambesi in 1854-57. By August, 1884, however, the basis of the Nile, Congo, Niger, Zambesi, and Limpopo rivers, together with all the great lakes, had been fairly well described, and since then, exploration has been prosecuted on such a scale that there is now but little left to discover.

"In the year last named, at the Berlin Conference, began the process of partition. What may be termed unappropriated Africa has been reduced to very narrow dimensions. It includes the eastern portion of the Sahara south of Fezzan, but this, with the exception of the Tibesti highlands, is a hopeless desert until, on its southern border, we reach the semi-civilized Soudanese Sultanate of Wadai, which is, at present, independent, but which ultimately, no doubt, will be claimed by France. As for Darfur, Korodofan, the Bahr-el-Ghazal region, and, in short, all of the territory which once belonged to the Khedive, this will probably be recovered by Egypt in the course of two or three years. There is also a small disputed area in West Africa. It consists of a patch behind the British Gold Coast colony, Ashanti, and the German Togoland, consisting mainly of the kingdom of Mossi. Great Britain claims a part of this patch, and, quite

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What about the Portuguese possessions? The changes of forty years? What about a great recent impetus? Egypt?

AFRICA
At the end of the
NINETEENTH CENTURY
SCALE OF MILES
0 500 1,000 1,500
20° Longitude West
0° 20° Longitude East 40° from Greenwich
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
SAHARA
ARABIA
Strait of Gibraltar
SPAIN
Tangier
Algiers
Tunis
Tripoli
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TUNIS
TRIPOLI
BARCA
Alexandria
Cairo
Jerusalem
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
EGYPT
Aswan
Mecca
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
SPANISH GUINEA
TROPIC OF CANCER
FRENCH TERRITORY
CAPE VERDE IS.
SENEGAL
GAMBIA
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
NIGER
Khartum
Massaua
ABYSSINIA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Adis Abeba
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
IVORY COAST
ASHANTI
NIGERIA
Monrovia
Abomey
Yoruba
FERNANDO PO I.
ST. THOMAS I.
CAMEROONS
FRENCH CONGO
KONGO STATE
Victoria Nyanza
Mombasa
Zanzibar
Dar-es-Salaam
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
EQUATOR
Libreville
Gulf of Guinea
Boma
Loanda
ASCENSION I.
PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA
Mozambique
ST. HELENA
GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA
BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA
Beira
Tananarivo
Windhoek
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Kimberly
Lourenco Marquez
Pietermaritzburg
Bloemfontein
CAPE COLONY
Cape Town
Port Elizabeth
Cape of Good Hope
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
BRITISH
ITALIAN
FRENCH
KONGO STATE
GERMAN
PORTUGUESE
ABYSSINIA MOROCCO LIBERIA
SPANISH
TURKISH

recently, Germany and France came to an agreement as to the limits of Togoland. We should add that Liberia, the negro republic, is still nominally independent, though France has cut down her territory to fourteen thousand six hundred square miles.

"Through the jealousy of the powers interested, Morocco remains as yet unannexed, and the Turkish Pashalik of Tripoli, which includes Barca and the oasis of Fezzan, is, for a like reason, permitted to remain Turkish territory. In the south of the continent the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic, formerly autonomous, are now subject to Great Britain. We should further mention that Abyssinia retains its independence, although it is now entirely cut off from the sea. With the exceptions here noted, the vast expanse of Africa, comprising nearly twelve million square miles, is distributed among the European powers, which have either annexed the soil, or established an avowed or virtual protectorate over it, or else set claim to it as falling within their spheres of influence.

"Let us see how the division has been made. For the present, and until England shall assume a protectorate over Egypt, France has ostensibly the larger share. Including Madagascar, her territory is estimated at three million three hundred thousand square miles, but almost half of this is represented by the French section of the Sahara, which Lord Salisbury, euphemistically described as 'very light soil.' Algeria and Tunis, of course, are held by right of conquest, and in West Africa, France possesses a long line of coast, from a little to the north of Cape Blanco round to the British Gold Coast colony, interrupted, however, by such patches as British Gambia, Portuguese Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone. The whole of the Niger above Say is French, and nearly all the country within the great bend of the river is claimed by her. France also claims the entire region north of a line drawn from Say to Lake Tchad, the eastern shore of which adjoins the French Congo. The eastern boundary of French Congo, is, according to the English, the divide between the waters of the Congo and the Nile, but, according to the French, should be pushed eastward so as to include at least a part of the Bahr-el-Ghazal country. It was in pursuance of these pretensions that Major Marchand advanced to Fashoda, on the White Nile. The part of French Congo which is beyond dis-

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Morocco? Abyssinia? France in West Africa?

pute has an area of some five hundred and sixty thousand square miles. We should not overlook the fact that at the mouth of the Red Sea, opposite Aden, there is a block of territory known as Obok, which is estimated to cover fifty thousand square miles, and which belongs to France. This acquisition has strategic value because it commands Abyssinia.

"The total area in Africa claimed by Great Britain is at present computed at two million three hundred thousand square miles, but to this one million two hundred thousand square miles would be added should a protectorate be asserted over Egypt. The British Niger territories form the most densely peopled part of Africa; they are capable of great commercial development, and many of the people are far above the rank of savages. Uganda also, which has been termed by explorers the pearl of Africa, falls within the British sphere of influence. On the whole, it may be said the whole of Africa that is comfortably habitable by white men is under the British flag, or under British protection; and again, that everything in Africa that pays dividends lies within the sphere claimed by the British government. Practically, what other nations have scrambled for has been John Bull's leavings. Germany, it is true, has annexed nine hundred and twenty-five thousand square miles, but more than a third of this is desert land on the southwest coast, and the rest is tropical land on the east coast, or the Gold coast, which contains more officials than colonists, and requires subsidies, but pays no dividends. Portugal, which once possessed a far larger territory, retains seven hundred and fifty thousand square miles, but much of this consists of malarial marshes. The Congo Free State may ultimately prove self-supporting, but at present it needs a subsidy of $400,000 a year, and has incurred besides a debt of over $40,000,000. Italy, which originally claimed four hundred and twenty square miles, has been restricted on the coast of the Red Sea to the narrow strip known as Eritrea, has been obliged to renounce her asserted protectorate over Abyssinia, and will probably have to sell her part of Somaliland to Great Britain. In fact, with the single exception of England, the partition of Africa has not, as yet, been a source of profit to any of the powers concerned."

What about Great Britain's claims? Portuguese and Italian possessions? Who are the greatest gainers?

ATLANTIC OCEAN
GAUL
SPAIN
Danube Riv
EUXINE SEA
Rome
Philippi
Thessalonica
Constantinople
BITHYNIA
PONTUS
Nice
GREECE
ASIA MINOR
CAPPADOCIA
Smyrna
Ephesus
SICILY
Hippo
Carthage
Corinth
Patmos
CRETE
Antioch
Damascus
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Jerusalem
AFRICA
EGYPT
Nile Riv
RED SEA
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
CHURCH HISTORY
CHAPTER I.
A.D.1 - 312.

BOOK XIX

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

CHAPTER I

FROM THE BIRTH OF CHRIST TO THE TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIANITY.—A. D. 1 TO 312.

NO work on general history can be complete without a sketch of the Catholic Church, from its establishment to the present time. This embraces a period of nearly nineteen centuries, which may be divided into three portions.

The first division extends from the birth of Christ to the triumph of Christianity, when it became the religion of the Roman Empire, under the reign of Constantine the Great, A. D. 312.

The second division extends from the reign of Constantine to the revolt of Luther, A. D. 1517; and the third, from that period till our own day.

2. At a time when the Roman Empire had reached the meridian of its greatness, when every nation accessible to its arms had yielded submission to its power, when rival monarchs and contending chieftains had ceased their strife, and the troubled elements of war, which had for ages convulsed the world, had sunk to repose under the mild reign of Augustus, our LORD JESUS CHRIST, the Prince of Peace and the Redeemer of the world, was born at Bethlehem in Judea.

At the time when this remarkable event took place, an expectation universally prevailed, even among the pagan nations, that some extraordinary personage was about to appear on this earth. The Jews, in particular, were anxiously expecting the coming of the Messiah, whose birth had been long foretold by the prophets; but they very erroneously imagined that He would appear as a great prince, clothed with worldly splendor and power; as a mighty con-

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CHAPTER I.—1. What period does the history of the Catholic Church embrace? What does the first division include? The second? The third?—2. When and where was Jesus Christ born? At that time, what prevailed? What were the Jews anxiously expecting? But what did they imagine?

queror, who would deliver their nation from the dominion of the Romans.

3. The Pharisees, who were the most powerful of the three sects* into which the Jews were at that time divided, presided in the schools, and were the chief doctors of the law. They received all the books of the Old Testament, to which they added their traditions, or oral law, which was regarded of high authority. They affected the appearance of great sanctity, but being destitute of the true spirit of religion, they are chargeable with the grossest hypocrisy; they looked for a Messiah only as a great deliverer, who should rescue Judea from the yoke of a foreign power, and subject the whole world to the Mosaic institutions. It is not surprising, then, that the manner of our Divine Savior's appearance on earth disappointed the expectation of the Jews. No royal palace marks the consecrated spot where the long-expected Messiah first appeared among the children of men. A lowly manger was the place of His nativity, Joseph, His reputed father, was a humble carpenter, and the Blessed Mary, His virgin mother, though descended from the royal house of David, was undistinguished among the daughters of Judea.

4. The life of our Divine Redeemer was one of labor and suffering, and His death was finally consummated upon an ignominious cross. He had chosen for His disciples men in the humblest walks of life. Peter, the chief of the Apostles, was a fisherman. To the Twelve, He gave divine commission to propagate His heavenly doctrine, in these remarkable words: "To Me all power is given in heaven and on earth; go ye, therefore, and teach all nations; baptizing them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost; teaching them to observe all things whatsoever

* The other two sects were the Sadducees and Essenes. The Sadducees were unbelievers in religion; they admitted the authority of the Books of Moses, but denied the sacred character of the other parts of the Old Testament; they rejected the doctrine of a future life, and the existence of angels and spirits. The Essenes were a class of men who took no concern in the affairs of state, but professed to live in retirement and to attempt to purify the soul by abstinence, silence, and mortification.

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3. What is said of the Pharisees? What did they affect? What is not surprising? What was the place of His nativity? What was Joseph? What was Mary?—4. What is said of our Divine Savior? What had He chosen? In what words did He commission the twelve Apostles?

I have commanded you; and behold I am with you all days, even to the consummation of the world."*

5. Thus divinely commissioned, the Apostles on the day of Pentecost, being enriched with the gifts of the Holy Ghost, entered upon their mission, and in the streets of Jerusalem promulgated the law of Jesus Christ, and so astonishing were the fruits of their labors, that no less than three thousand persons were converted by the first sermon of St. Peter. This success did not fail to awaken in the breast of the Jewish rulers a spirit of jealousy; and they dreaded the total subversion of the Mosaic law, and left nothing undone to retard the labors of the Apostles. A violent persecution followed, during which St. Stephen, one of the Seven Deacons, fell a sacrifice to their fury and fanaticism, and is honored as the first martyr of the Christian religion. The most active persecutor of the followers of Christ, however, was a young man named Saul, who, not satisfied with the cruelties he had committed at Jerusalem, obtained permission of the High-priest to pursue them even to the adjacent towns and cities. With this view, he set out to Damascus, but on his road he was suddenly struck blind, and cast upon the ground; at the same time he heard a voice saying to him, "Saul, Saul! why dost thou persecute Me?" His attendants raised him up, and conducted him to the town; he was there baptized by a holy priest named Ananias, and Saul, from being a violent persecutor of the Christian Church, became one of its most illustrious apostles, and assumed the name of Paul.

6. In the meantime, the twelve Apostles having composed a symbol of their belief, commonly called the Apostles' Creed,† and having appointed St. James, the son of Alpheus, as the first Bishop of Jerusalem, set out to announce the truths of Christianity to the pagan world. They confirmed the doctrines they taught by the most astonishing miracles; they healed the sick; raised the dead to life; and being endowed with the gift of tongues, they were enabled to speak

* St. Matt., chap. 28.

† It is in the Apostles' Creed that we find the first mention of the name of the Church founded by Christ—"the Holy Catholic Church."

5. What did the Apostles do? How many were converted by the first sermon of St. Peter? What followed? Who fell a sacrifice to their fury? Who was the most active of the persecutors? On the road to Damascus, what happened to him? By whom was he baptized? What name did he assume?—6. In the meantime, what did the twelve Apostles do? How did they confirm the doctrines they taught?

the language of the different nations through which they travelled. The rapidity with which the Christian Faith was propagated, will appear the more extraordinary, when we reflect that its Founder belonged to a nation undistinguished for power or importance; that He suffered a public and ignominious death; that His Apostles, with few exceptions, were poor and illiterate, destitute of power or influence; that the religion which they preached held out no promise of temporal goods, no worldly pleasures, honors, or riches; but on the contrary, often exposed its professors to scorn and reproach, persecution and temporal loss; finally, that it had to contend not only with the long-established superstition and popular dogmas of pagan worship, but also with the vices, passions, prejudices, and power of the whole world!

7. Under such circumstances, the marvellous success of the Apostles in spreading the Christian religion cannot be other than the work of an Almighty Hand. To the divine power of its Founder alone, we must ascribe the wonderful triumph of the Gospel. Allured by no earthly advantage, subdued by no other force than that of truth, the learned and the ignorant, the Jew and the Gentile, the Greek and the barbarian, meekly bowed their necks to the yoke of Christ, shook off their ancient prejudices, and professed themselves the followers of a crucified God.

8. In a few years, we find that the light of Christianity has spread its cheering rays over the various provinces of the Roman Empire, St. Peter visited the towns of Samaria, Judea, and Syria, and first fixed his episcopal chair at Antioch. He afterwards traversed the provinces of Asia Minor, and preached to the Jews in Pontus, Galatia, Cappadocia, and Bithynia; he visited Rome about the year 42, to which city he removed his Pontifical See, wisely judging that from the capital the light of Christianity would spread more rapidly through the whole empire. St. Paul, who had lately been introduced to the Apostles, was consecrated Bishop and sent to carry the glad tidings of the Gospel to the Gentile nations. Passing through Antioch* and the provinces of

* It was at Antioch, according to St. Luke, that "the disciples were first named Christians." This was about the year 44.

What is said of the rapidity with which Christianity was propagated?—7. What is said of this rapid success? What is further observed in this paragraph?—8. In a few years, what do we find? What places did St. Peter visit? When did he visit Rome? What is said of St. Paul? What places did he pass through?

Asia Minor, he converted thousands to the Christian religion; thence he visited Greece, a country which had been long renowned for science, for eloquence, and for arts. Here the Apostle resolved to introduce a more sublime and precious knowledge, the knowledge of the true God. His labors were crowned with success. Idolatry fell before the power of his heavenly eloquence; and flourishing churches arose in the cities of Corinth, Philippi, Thessalonica, Athens, and Ephesus. From Greece he directed his course to Rome, and carried the knowledge of Christ into the very apartments of Nero's palace.

9. Notwithstanding the many shining virtues which adorned the lives of the first professors of Christianity, they were not, however, exempt from the frailties of men. A misguided zeal on the part of the Jewish converts at Antioch led them to propose, as a matter of obligation, that the Gentiles who became Christians should submit to the law of circumcision if they hoped to attain salvation. The proposition gave rise to warm disputes; charity and religion were likely to suffer, when the affair was happily settled by a Council held at Jerusalem. St. Paul and Barnabas repaired to that city to be present on the occasion. St. Peter, presiding, opened the discussion, and after relating the wonders which God had wrought through His ministry among the Gentiles, concluded that no superfluous burden of the ancient law ought to be imposed upon them. St. James concluded the debate by expressing his approbation of the decision given by St. Peter.

10. In this, the first Council of the Catholic Church, the Apostles established a judicial form of proceeding, which the Church in after ages followed, in deciding all questions that relate to faith and discipline. A dispute, important in its consequences, had arisen among the faithful; private authority, even that of St. Paul, is unable to calm into silence the contending parties; recourse is had to the pastors of the Church assembled in Council; the points in dispute are regularly discussed; a decree is formed upon the subject; the faithful bow in acquiescence to the decision; the cause of

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Where did he finally direct his course?—9. What did a misguided zeal lead many of the Jewish converts to propose? How was the affair settled? Who opened the discussion, and who concluded the debate?—10. In this Council, what was established? What is observed about it?

disagreement is removed; and harmony and peace are again restored.

11. After the death of Festus, the Roman governor, by whose authority the violence of the Jews had been restrained, the spirit of persecution was again renewed against the Christians in Jerusalem. St. James, the Bishop of Jerusalem, surnamed the Just, on account of his exemplary piety and charity, fell a victim to their blind fanaticism. Being summoned before the council of the San'hedrim,* he was ordered to declare his opinion concerning Jesus Christ. But in order that the declaration might be more public, they commanded the venerable Apostle to ascend the battlements of the Temple, and thence declare his sentiments to the surrounding multitude. No sooner had the holy confessor appeared on the summit, and proclaimed the divinity of Jesus Christ, than he was precipitated from the battlements, and died amidst a furious discharge of stones from the hands of the populace, while, in imitation of his divine Master, he prayed for his persecutors, and besought God to forgive them, because they knew not what they did.

12. Although the faithful had suffered in many places, both from the Jews and Gentiles, they had not, as yet, undergone any general persecution. The first of the Roman Emperors who exerted the power of the state against the professors of Christianity, was the brutal Nero, whose cruelty was only surpassed by his moral depravity. In his wild extravagance, this imperial madman set fire to the city of Rome, that he might have the vain satisfaction of rebuilding it on a more magnificent plan. But finding that his excesses created against him the murmurs and disaffection of the people, he artfully contrived to throw the odium upon the Christians, whom he openly accused as the authors of the late conflagration, and published a decree, which made it a capital offence to profess the Christian religion. Revolting were the cruelties exercised against the unoffending members of the Catholic Church. Some were covered with the skins of wild beasts and devoured by dogs; others were

* The great Council of the Jews, which consisted of seventy members, presided over by the High-priest.

11. After the death of Festus, what followed? Who fell a victim to their fury? Relate the circumstances of his death.—12. Who first directed the sovereign power against the Christians? What did he do? On whom did he throw the odium? What did he publish? How were some put to death?

braced in tunics steeped in pitch, and placed at certain distances, then set on fire to light the streets by night. Among the many who suffered on this occasion, were the two illustrious Apostles, St. Peter and St. Paul. They were confined for nine months in a loathsome prison, at the foot of the capitol, before they were called to receive the crown of martyrdom. St. Peter was crucified with his head downwards, but St. Paul, being a Roman citizen, had the honor of dying by the sword.

13. The second persecution commenced during the reign of the Emperor Domitian, about the year 95, during which it is computed that forty thousand Christians received the crown of martyrdom. The most illustrious sufferer was St. John, the Evangelist. He resided chiefly at Ephesus, Asia Minor; but on information being lodged against him, he was cited by the Emperor to appear at Rome, and, on account of his faith, was condemned to be cast alive into a caldron of boiling oil. The sentence was carried into execution before the Latin Gate, but by the miraculous power of God, the holy martyr came forth from the caldron not only unhurt, but more fresh and vigorous than before. The brutal Emperor having failed in his attempt to deprive him of life, banished him to the Isle of Patmos, where the inspired Saint was favored with those heavenly visions recorded in the Apocalypse, or Book of Revelations. On the death of Domitian, in the year 96, St. John again returned to Ephesus. At this early period the Catholic Church had the mortification to see many of her children fall from their first faith, and teach erroneous doctrines. Of these, the most conspicuous were Ebion, and Nicholas of Antioch. Among other errors, they denied the divinity of Jesus Christ, and asserted the necessity of observing the ceremonies of the Mosaic law. To silence the heretical declaimers, St. John, at the request of the Bishops of Asia, wrote his Gospel, which commences in a strain of sublime eloquence.

14. After the death of Domitian, the peace of the Church was restored, under the mild reign of Nerva; but the reign of that prince was of short duration, and on the accession of

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Who were the most distinguished?—13. When did the second persecution commence? Who was the most illustrious sufferer? Where did he reside, and to what was he condemned? How did he come forth from the caldron? Where was he banished? At this early period, what had the Church? Of these, who were the most conspicuous? To silence them, what did St. John do?

Trajan to the imperial throne, the terrible edicts of Nero and Domitian were renewed, and again the cities and provinces flowed with Christian blood. This was the third general persecution. The younger Pliny, who was then Governor of Bithynia, in a letter to the Emperor, bears ample testimony to the exemplary lives of the Christians, and tells us, that so great was their number, that they filled the fields, the towns, and villages; that on his arrival in the province, he could scarcely find a man of whom to purchase victims for the pagan altars. The most illustrious of those who suffered for the Faith, on this occasion, were St. Clement, the Bishop of Rome; St. Ignatius, of Antioch, and St. Simeon, of Jerusalem. Simeon was nearly related to our Divine Savior, and had reached the one hundred and twentieth year of his age.

15. The fourth persecution commenced about the year 168, under the reign of Marcus Aurelius, during which thousands sealed with their blood the doctrines of the Catholic Church. Among the most illustrious of those who suffered was St. Polycarp, the venerable Bishop of Smyrna.

The fifth persecution commenced in the year 202. From the death of Aurelius, the Christians had enjoyed the free exercise of their religion under various Emperors, to the reign of Severus, who was thought even favorable to Christianity, during the first seven years of his administration. At this period, however, seemingly without any provocation, he published against them a most ferocious edict, forbidding them to hold their religious assemblies, and to profess the name of Christ. A dreadful persecution followed, particularly in Egypt, in Gaul, and Africa, where thousands sealed the profession of their Faith by shedding the last drop of their blood.

16. The sixth persecution was commenced under the reign of Maximin, who had reached the imperial throne by imbruing his hand in the blood of his predecessor. This barbarous Emperor pointed not his shafts against the great body of the Christians, who had now become too numerous to be marked out for slaughter, but directed his malice against

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14. When did the third persecution commence? What does the younger Pliny say of the Christians? Who were the most illustrious of the sufferers?—15. When was the fourth persecution commenced, and who suffered? When did the fifth persecution commence? What edict was published?—16. When was the sixth persecution commenced? Against whom did he direct his malice?

the pastors of the Church. With the death of Maximin, the persecution ceased in 240, after it had lasted three years. The seventh persecution of the Christians was published on the accession of Decius to the throne. It was the most dreadful hitherto experienced; prisons, stripes, fire, wild beasts, melted wax, boiling pitch, racks, and iron hooks to tear the flesh from the bones, were employed to torment and to kill. The most distinguished of those who suffered during this persecution were, Fabianus, the Bishop of Rome, Alexander, of Jerusalem, and Balytas, of Antioch. The eighth persecution was commenced under the Emperor Valerian, who, in the beginning of his reign, had shown the greatest lenity towards the Christians. With a view to rendering the pagan gods propitious to his arms, on the eve of an expedition against the Persians, he published a violent edict against the professors of the Christian name. Among the first who suffered were Pope St. Stephen, and St. Sixtus, his immediate successor, with the illustrious martyr, St. Lawrence, and also St. Cyprian, Bishop of Carthage.

17. To gratify the senate and people of Rome, the Emperor Aurelian published a most cruel edict against the Christians about the year 274; but before he had the satisfaction of seeing it properly carried into effect, the hand of an assassin put an end to his life. Yet in several places many received the crown of martyrdom.

The tenth and last general persecution took place about the year 303. The Church, after enjoying general tranquillity for thirty years, was again doomed to experience another bloody persecution, under Diocletian, and his colleagues in the empire. For some time Diocletian rejected the measure for political motives, until he was at length overcome by the soothsayers, who declared that the empire could never flourish as long as the impious, meaning the Catholics, were suffered to exist. The deluded Emperor weakly yielded to their persuasions, and published an edict for the total destruction of the Catholic religion. This violent decree well suited the savage disposition of his col-

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When was the seventh persecution published? What were the modes of torture? Who were the most distinguished sufferers? What did Valerian publish on the eve of his expedition against Persia? Who suffered on this occasion?—17. To gratify the people of Rome, what did Aurelian do? When did the tenth persecution take place? For some time what did he reject? At length, what did he publish?

leagues, Maximinus and Galerius, whose respective provinces were deluged with Christian blood. In Britain and Gaul, under the mild administration of Constantius, the horrors of the persecution were less severe; still the authority of Constantius was insufficient in some instances to restrain the more superstitious of the magistrates; hence, even in Britain, we find St. Alban and St. Angelus, Bishop of London, dying for the Faith; and in Gaul, St. Quintin and others, with the whole Theban legion, were barbarously sacrificed to gratify an inferior officer of state.

18. At this period, however, when the powers of darkness seemed to threaten the total extirpation of the Christian name, we are called to look for the signs of that coming dawn, which is to usher in a brighter and happier era, when the Catholic Church is to triumph over the ruins of pagan superstition, and when the cross is to adorn the diadem of the Cæsars. By a sudden revolution in the state, or rather by the providence of God, whose superintending power directs the destinies of nations, Constantine having triumphed over all his competitors, was placed in the undisputed possession of the imperial throne. The first care of this enlightened prince was to declare himself the protector of the Christian Faith, and to publish an edict by which all the penal restraints respecting religion were removed, and full liberty allowed to everyone to profess and exercise that form of religious worship he should think proper to adopt. To break the force of prejudice, which time and custom had thrown around the pagan religion of the empire, Constantine wisely judged that lenient measures were the most likely to effect his object; and he concluded that to overthrow the system of error, nothing more was requisite than to grant protection to the true religion, and to let the wisdom of its doctrines and the purity of its precepts appear in open view.

19. To remedy the evils occasioned by the edicts of his predecessors, he recalled the exiles, restored to the Christians their places of worship, and treated their pastors with the deepest respect. To the Pope, or Bishop of Rome, he granted the Lateran Palace as the place of his future residence, and

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What is said of the persecution in Britain?—18. At this period, what are we called to look for? What is said of Constantine? What was his first care, and what did he publish? To break the force of prejudice, what did he conclude?—19. To remedy the evils, etc., what did he do? To the Bishop of Rome, what did he grant?

ATLANTIC OCEAN
ENGLAND
GERMANY
Prague
Angers
Tours
FRANCE
Constance
Geneva
Lyons
Milan
Avignon
AUSTRIA
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
SPAIN
ITALY
Rome
Capua
TURKEY
Constantinople
Chalcedon
Nice
Nyssa
MINOR
ASIA
Nazianzus
GREECE
Ephesus
Carthage
Hippo
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Caesarea
Jerusalem
Alexandria
AFRICA
EGYPT
RED SEA
CHURCH HISTORY
CHAPTER II.
A.D.312 - A.D.1517.
Scale of Miles.
0 100 200 300 400 500

the adjoining palace was converted into a Christian temple, now called the Church of St. John of Lateran.

Thus was the Catholic Church, which had been founded by Jesus Christ, finally triumphant, after undergoing the ordeal of ten vigorous persecutions. A change with respect to their religion, so sudden, and so unexpected, inspired the faithful with the prospect of joy for the present, and the most flattering anticipations for the future.

CHAPTER II

FROM THE TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIANITY TO THE REVOLT OF LUTHER.—A. D. 312 TO 1517.

UNDER the protection of Constantine the Christian religion began to assume an imposing aspect; magnificent churches arose where pagan temples had stood for ages; the storm of persecution had ceased; the Bishops no longer lay under any restraint in the public exercise of their pastoral functions; the people hastened to embrace a religion sanctioned by their Emperor. Such was the pleasing prospect of affairs when the Catholic Church beheld her peace interrupted, and prosperity marred, not indeed by the hand of a pagan persecutor, but from the unworthy conduct of her own children.

2. Arius, a turbulent priest of Alexandria, had aspired to the episcopal chair of that city, but being defeated in his pretensions, he began to assail the doctrines of the Church, and openly denied the divinity of Christ, and asserted that the Son of God was not equal to His Father in nature and substance. At this doctrine, the faithful were shocked and scandalized; the pastors were alarmed; and in order to check the progress of error, and to define the doctrine of the Church on the point in question, the calling together of a General Council was deemed expedient. Accordingly, during the month of June, in the year 325, the famous Council of Nice was convoked. It was composed of three hundred and

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What is observed of the Church?

CHAPTER II.—1. What is said of Christianity under the protection of Constantine? What arose? What did the people do?—2. What is said of Arius? What did he deny and assert? In order to check the progress of error, what was done? When and where did it meet? Of what was it composed?

eighteen Bishops, besides a much greater number of inferior ecclesiastics. Osius, the venerable Bishop of Cordova, in Spain, with two priests, presided in the name of Pope St. Sylvester, who was unable to attend in person. Constantine also, with many of his chief officers of state, was present on the occasion. After mature deliberation the Fathers of the Council, with exception of five Bishops, unanimously condemned the opinions of Arius as erroneous, and contrary to what had been taught by the Apostles and their immediate successors, and published the Nicene Creed,* which should stand to all succeeding ages as the test of orthodox belief in the divinity of Jesus Christ. The question of faith being thus finally decided, the Council proceeded to enact certain canons for the regulation of ecclesiastical discipline. The uniform celebration of Easter Sunday was fixed, and directed to be universally kept, in future, on the first Sunday after the first full moon that follows the vernal equinox. Before the Council separated, a synodical epistle was drawn up and directed to St. Sylvester, who is styled in that document "the blessed Pope of Rome," requesting that he would confirm its decrees.

3. Arianism was checked for the present, but not suppressed. It continued to find many patrons and supporters among those whose rank and power gave it considerable influence. Constantius, the son and successor of Constantine, with several subsequent Emperors, favored the Arian heresy, and under their respective reigns the orthodox portion of the Church experienced a series of persecutions little inferior, in point of cruelty and violence, to those carried on when pagan sovereigns swayed the imperial sceptre. Under the reign of Theodosius the Great, peace was again restored to the Church; and in order to remedy the evils, and correct the general confusion of doctrine that pervaded the East, occasioned by the violence which prevailed for nearly forty years, a second General Council convened at Constantinople, in the month of May, A. D. 381.

* This Creed can be found among the prayers at Mass in any Catholic prayer-book; and in it the four marks of the true Church—"One, Holy, Catholic, and Apostolic"—were first stated.

Who presided? How were the opinions of Arius condemned? What was fixed and directed? Before the Council separated, what was done?—3. What is said of Arianism? Of Constantius? Under Theodosius the Great, what took place? When did the second Council convene?

4. This Council consisted of about one hundred and fifty Catholic Bishops, besides thirty of the Macedonian party. The Macedonians, who took their name from Macedonius, the leader of their sect, not only maintained the Arian heresy, but also denied the divine procession of the Holy Ghost. The Fathers of the Council condemned, in most explicit terms, this new error, declaring the Holy Ghost to be "The Lord and Giver of life, who, with the Father and Son, is equally adored and glorified." Among the persons most distinguished for their learning and sanctity, we find the names of St. Athana'sius, Bishop of Alexandria; St. Basil the Great, Archbishop of Cæsarea; St. Gregory Nazian'zen, no less distinguished for his eloquence than for the holiness of his life; St. Gregory, Bishop of Nyssa, and St. Cyril, Bishop of Jerusalem. To these may be added the names of St. Ambrose, Archbishop of Milan; St. Jerome, the learned secretary of Pope St. Damascus, and, finally, the illustrious St. John Chry'sostom, who died in the early part of the succeeding century.

5. As the Arian heresy gradually declined, the schism of Donatus began to rise on its ruins. The first appearance of this schism is dated from about the middle of the fourth century. Donatus, a turbulent prelate, with several other Bishops, contested the validity of the election and consecration of Cecilian, Bishop of Carthage, and even went so far as to pass sentence of deposition against him, and to elect Majorian in his place. In defiance of all authority, they supported this violent measure, and on the death of Majorian, they elected one Donatus, from whom the party properly derives its name. To schism they added heresy, asserting that God, the Son, was less than the Father, and greater than the Holy Ghost; that the Church had failed, and that with them alone existed true virtue. Towards the close of the fourth, and the beginning of the fifth century, they had greatly multiplied; and, with their numbers, their violence also increased; they declared open hostility against the Catholic clergy, drove them by force from their churches, profaned the sacred vessels, and overturned the altars. After

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4. Of what did this Council consist? What did the Macedonians maintain and deny? What did the fathers of this Council declare? Who are among the persons most distinguished for their learning, etc.?—5. As the Arian heresy declined, what schism arose? What is said of Donatus? To schism what did they add and assert? What did they denounce?

the great conference held at Carthage, during the year 411, at which St. Augustine, the illustrious Bishop of Hippo, in the most satisfactory manner, refuted the arguments of the Donatists, we find that the heresy rapidly declined. But before it had entirely disappeared, the Pela'gian heresy grew into being.

6. Pela'gius, the founder of this new sect, by birth a Briton, was a monk of Bangor, in Wales, from which place he went to Rome during the fourth century. He denied the existence of original sin in the soul of man, and rejected the necessity of divine grace for the merit of good works, contending that Adam, by sinning, only affected himself, and that his descendants are now born in that state in which they would have been had he never sinned. These errors were repeatedly condemned by several local councils held about this period, and refuted by the unanswerable arguments of the great doctor, St. Augustine.

7. About the year 428, the Nestorian heresy was first broached at Constantinople. Nesto'rius, from whom the heresy takes its name, was at the time Bishop of that city. In opposition to the Catholic doctrine, he taught that there were two distinct persons in Jesus Christ, namely, that of God and that of man, joined together by a moral union in such a manner that the Godhead dwelt in the humanity merely as a temple. Hence he denied the Incarnation, or that God was made man, and asserted that the Blessed Virgin Mary ought not to be styled the Mother of God, but the mother of the Man Christ, whose humanity was only the temple of the Divinity. This strange doctrine, delivered for the first time from the pulpit of the great Church of St. Sophia, so shocked the Catholic audience, that they closed their ears and rushed from the holy place. These errors of Nestorius were condemned by the third General Council, held at Ephesus, A. D. 431.

8. About twenty years after this event, the fourth General Council was held at Chalcedon for the purpose of condemning the errors of Eu'tyches, who admitted but one

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After the great conference at Carthage, what do we find?—6. What is said of Pelagius? What did he deny, reject, etc?—By whom were these errors condemned and refuted?—7. About the year 428, what took place? What was Nestorius? What did he teach? Hence, what did he deny and assert? Where was this strange doctrine first delivered, and what followed?—8. When and why was the fourth General Council held?

nature in Jesus Christ, and maintained that His human nature was totally absorbed by the divine, and became one with it; so that, in his opinion, Christ had no real body, and consequently, as divine nature is incapable of suffering, He had neither died nor suffered really, but in appearance only. The heresy, however, continued to increase, causing violence and confusion, particularly in the east, until after the fifth General Council, held at Constantinople, during the year 553, when it gradually declined.

9. But the Catholic Church was not destined to enjoy a long continuance of repose. One heresy was no sooner checked and proscribed, than a new one started up in its place. Error had often found protection in the imperial palace, but in the present instance we find the Emperor himself becoming the founder of a new, ridiculous sect, called the Icon'oclasts, or Image-breakers. Leo, surnamed the Isau'rian, having ascended the throne of Constantinople, conceived a great aversion to the images of Christ and the saints, which were used in the churches, and ordered their removal under the severest penalties. In carying this impious and fanatical edict into effect, much violence and bloodshed was occasioned; and the disturbance continued to rage until the convocation of the seventh General Council, held at Nice towards the close of the year 787. This Council was attended by about three hundred Bishops, the representatives of the Catholic Church from all parts of the Christian world, and after due deliberation they unanimously declared that the pictures and images of Jesus Christ and His saints are useful in the churches and other places; that they recall forcibly to the minds of those who behold them the scenes they represent; that they may be venerated and honored, not indeed with that supreme honor which belongs to God alone, but with a relative and inferior honor, such as every Christian entertains for the Holy Bible, in which the Divine Law is written.

10. In the year 866, Pho'tius, through the meddlesome influence of imperial authority, was placed in the patriarchal chair of Constantinople, to the forcible exclusion of St. Ignatius, its lawful incumbent. Proceeding from one extrava-

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What did Eutyches admit and maintain? When and where was the fifth General Council held?—9. In the present instance, what do we find? What is said of Leo? When was the seventh General Council held? By whom was it attended? What did they unanimously declare?—10. In 866, what took place?

gance to another, Photius, at length, calling together a synod of twenty-one Bishops, pronounced sentence of deposition and excommunication against the Roman Pontiff, Pope Nicholas. Upon the accession of Leo, surnamed the Wise, Photius was compelled to relinquish his usurped dignity and to retire to a monastery in Armenia, where he died in the year 893. But the foundation of the Greek Schism was thus commenced, and finally completed by Michael Cerularius, in 1053. On the death of Alexis, Michael, from the humble condition of a monk, was to succeed him in the patriarchal chair. Shortly after his elevation, he began, by his acts and writings, to display his inveterate prejudice against the discipline and doctrine of the Catholic Church.

11. St. Leo, the Roman Pontiff, seeing that everything seemed to threaten an open rupture, did all in his power to prevent it. He sent the celebrated Cardinal Humber to Constantinople for the purpose of effecting an adjustment of the difficulties, but without success. Michael now threw off all restraint, assumed the title of Universal Patriarch, and published an act of excommunication against the Pope and the whole Church of the West; and proceeding from schism to heresy, he denied the procession of the Holy Ghost from God the Son, as well as from the Father. The maintenance of this error, with the rejection of the jurisdiction of the Pope, besides some variation in points of discipline, form the only difference at present between the Greek schismatics and the Catholic Church.

12. While these things were being transacted in the East, new errors arose in the West. Berenga'rius, Archdeacon of Angers, and a native of Tours, in France, began to dogmatize against second marriages, also against the necessity of infant baptism, and lastly, against the real presence of the Body of Christ in the Holy Eucharist. Several local councils were held for the purpose of ascertaining the teaching of the Church on these different points of doctrine. Berengarius being cited to appear before them, renounced his theories, but afterwards propagated them anew. In the year 1079, during the Pontificate of St. Gregory VIII, a great council was held at Rome, at which one hundred and fifty

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What did he at length pronounce? On the accession of Leo, what is said of Photius? By whom and when was the Greek schism completed?—11. What did St. Leo do? What did Michael assume, publish, and deny?—12. What is said of Berengarius? In 1079, what took place?

Bishops assisted. Before the assembled prelates, Berengarius again solemnly recanted his opinions, confessed that he had been deceived, and threw his writings into the fire. It is generally believed that after this he remained in the communion of the Catholic Church until his death, which took place during the year 1088.

13. From an early period, it had been customary for kings and emperors to present the ring and crosier to all Bishops elected within their respective dominions. Against this questionable custom, called Investiture, the Sovereign Pontiffs had long declaimed, as it was often productive of evil consequences, subjecting the Church to the necessity of waiting on the capricious will of the sovereign to fill the vacant Bishoprics. During the Pontificate of Gregory VII, the privilege was warmly contested against Henry IV, Emperor of Germany, and continued to be a subject of dispute until the affair was finally settled at the Council of Lateran, held in the year 1123, when his successor, Henry V, renounced his pretensions to the right of investiture.

14. Shortly after this period, the peace of the Church was again interrupted by the pretension of two claimants to the Papal Chair. On the death of Honorius II, Innocent II was chosen to succeed him by a majority of the Cardinals, not, however, without strong opposition on the part of Cardinal Peter, who had long aspired to the Pontifical dignity. This ambitious man had the address to procure his election in opposition to the lawful Pontiff, whom he expelled from Rome, and played the part of usurper until his death, in the year 1138. The most striking circumstances that distinguish the close of this and the greater part of the following century, were the Crusades, or sacred wars, undertaken for the recovery of the Holy Land from the hands of the Infidels; but of these we have spoken in a preceding part of the work.

15. During the Pontificate of Gregory IX, a treaty of union was commenced between the Greek schismatics and the Catholic Church; and although it did not receive the

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What did Berengarius solemnly do? What is generally believed? —13. From an early period, what had been the custom? Why did the Sovereign Pontiff declaim against it? When was the affair finally settled?—14. By what was the peace of the Church interrupted? On the death of Honorius, what took place? What striking circumstance is mentioned?—15. What was done during the Pontificate of Gregory IX?

entire approbation of the Greek nation, still it seemed to promise a happy issue. The project was eagerly pursued by the succeeding Pope, and finally accomplished in the time of Gregory X, at the great Council held at Lyons, in France, A. D. 1274. Unhappily, however, this union was of short duration. On the death of Michael, the Greek Emperor, his son, Andron'icus, who had ever been averse to the union, openly disavowed the measure, and in a short time frustrated all that had been accomplished at the Council of Lyons. The Bishops, who had signed and refused to retract the union, were deposed, and the Greek Church a second time plunged into heresy and schism.

16. On the death of Pope Gregory XI, Urban IV was chosen to succeed him on the Pontifical throne. At this time the abuses committed by the agents and officers of the Roman court had become a subject of loud complaint. A laudable zeal in effecting reforms carried this Pontiff to a degree of severity which was deemed imprudent. In his exhortations and reprimands, he spared not even the Cardinals themselves. They felt the justness of his censures, but rather than reform the causes of complaint, they chose to involve the whole Catholic world in confusion. Retiring from Rome to the number of fifteen, the Cardinals proceeded to Fondi, where, declaring the Holy See vacant, they chose for Pope, Robert of Geneva, who took the name of Clement, and fixed his residence at Avignon, A. D. 1379. Urban, however, steadily maintained his authority until his death, in 1389. Five years afterwards, the anti-Pope, Clement, was called from the busy scenes of life to the silence of the tomb. Among the great Saints of the middle ages were, the Venerable Bede, St. Bernard, St. Anselm, St. Lawrence O'Toole; St. Dominic, founder of the Dominican Order; St. Francis, of Assisium, founder of the Franciscans; St. Bonaventure, and St. Thomas Aquinas, the prince of Christian philosophers.

17. About the year 1385, in the latter part of the reign of Edward III, John Wickliffe became a religious stumbling-block in England. He had received a liberal education in

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When was it finally accomplished? On the death of Michael, what was done by his son?—16. Who succeeded Gregory XI? To what did his zeal carry him? Retiring from Rome, what did the Cardinals do? What is said of Urban? Who were among the great Saints of the middle ages?—17. In 1385, what took place?

the University of Oxford, where he subsequently gave lessons in theology with much success. The erroneous doctrines advanced by Wickliffe were chiefly the following: He maintained, that a Bishop or a priest, in the state of mortal sin, could not ordain, consecrate, or baptize; that the substance of the bread and wine remain in the Sacrament after consecration, and that Christ was not really present therein; that the Pope, if he be a wicked man, has no authority over the faithful; that the clergy ought to have no temporal possessions, and that auricular confession was superfluous and unnecessary. Wickliffe gained many adherents, of whom the Duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, was the most distinguished; under his patronage he continued to disseminate his principles until his death. His followers are generally known by the name of Lol'lards.

18. The convocation of the General Council of Constance, in the early part of the fifteenth century, had two important objects in view, namely, the extinction of schism, and the investigation of the doctrines advanced by Wickliffe, which were still advocated by his disciples. It was proposed, for the sake of peace, that the three competitors would resign their pretensions to the Pontifical throne. To this measure Gregory readily assented. John, who was regarded as the lawful Pope, showing an unwillingness to resign his claim, was deposed by the Council, but afterwards he freely signed the act of his deposition. Benedict, the third competitor, obstinately refused to come to any terms with the members of the Council, who, regarding the Holy See as vacant, proceeded to make arrangements for the election of a new Pontiff. The choice fell upon Cardinal Otho Colon'na, who took the name of Martin V. His election gave universal satisfaction, and happily ended the schism which had so long distracted the Church, A. D. 1417.

19. The writings of Wickliffe, which by this time had passed into Germany, fell into the hands of John Huss, rector of the University of Prague. Pleased with the principles they inculcated, he adopted them, and preached them from the pulpit. His eloquence and the persuasive manner in which he addressed his audience, gained him many adher-

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What is said of Wickliffe? What did he maintain? By what name were his followers known?—18. Why was the Council of Constance called? What was proposed? What is said of Gregory, and John? Of Benedict? Who was elected by the Council?—19. What is said of the writings of Wickliffe?

ents, among whom a professor of divinity, known by the name of Jerome of Prague, was the most distinguished. Huss being cited to appear before the Council to give an account of his doctrines, readily consented, and having obtained from the Emperor a passport for the security of his person, he set out to Constance. Having arrived there, he began to disseminate his principles among the people, for which he was placed under arrest and sent to the Dominican Convent, until the Council could take cognizance of his case. When called before the Fathers, he was convicted of holding doctrines contrary to the teachings of the Catholic Church, and, refusing to retract, he was degraded from the order of the priesthood, and delivered over to the civil power. The punishment which the Germanic law at that time inflicted on those convicted of obstinate errors against the Faith was burning alive, and to this cruel ordeal Huss was sentenced by the civil magistrates of Constance, and suffered on the 16th of July, 1415. About a year after this event, Jerome of Prague was also condemned for obstinately maintaining the doctrines of Huss, and was executed in a similar manner.

20. In 1439, the last reunion of the Greek with the Catholic Church took place, at the Council held at Florence. After the great point in dispute, namely, the procession of the Holy Ghost, had been regularly discussed, the Greeks frankly acknowledged that the Latins, or Catholics, had proved their point. A decree was accordingly made out, which once more united the Churches of Rome and Constantinople in one fold and under one supreme pastor, and was first signed by the Pope and Latin Fathers, then by the Greek Emperor and all his Bishops, except Mark, the metropolitan of Ephesus.

This memorable event, which had been so well conducted, afforded every well-grounded hope that the Catholic Faith would once more diffuse its rays over the provinces of the East. But from the unsteady character of the Greeks, little could be expected. The union, after enjoying a precarious existence for a few years, was severed once more—perhaps forever. In 1452, a general revolt took place, and, unhappily,

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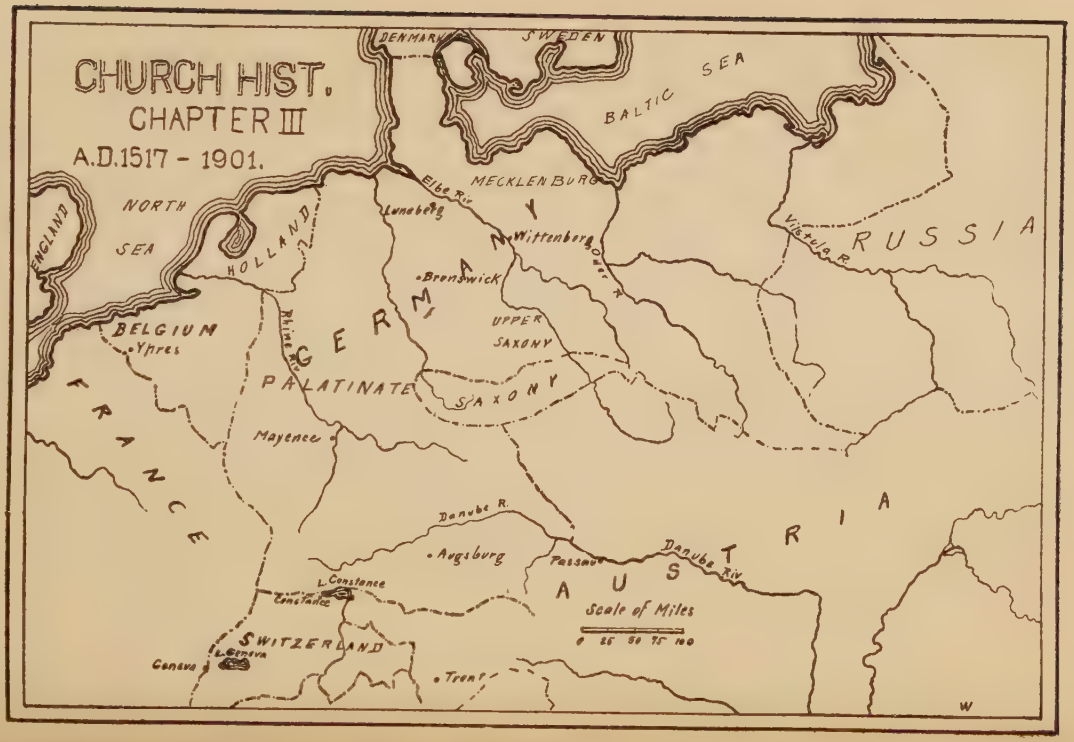
Being cited before the Council, what did he do? Why was he sent to the Dominican Convent? Of what was he convicted? What punishment was inflicted by the Germanic law? When did Huss suffer? Who else was condemned?—20. In 1439, what took place? What decree was made out, and by whom was it signed? What did this event afford? In 1452, what took place?


CHURCH HIST.
CHAPTER III
A.D.1517 - 1901.
DENMARK
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
MECKLENBURG
Elbe R.
Lunebeg
NORTH SEA
ENGLAND
HOLLAND
Wittenberg
Oder R.
Vistula R.
RUSSIA
Brunswick
GERMANY
UPPER SAXONY
BELGIUM
Ypres
Rhine R.
PALATINATE
SAXONY
FRANCE
Mayence
Danube R.
Augsburg
Passau
Danube Riv
AUSTRIA
L. Constance
Constance
SWITZERLAND
L. Geneva
Geneva
Trent
Scale of Miles
0 25 50 75 100
W

threw everything into confusion. The Greek monks, the clergy, a part of the laity, and the senate, rose tumultuously at once, proclaimed the union at an end, and from that day all communication with the Catholic Church ceased. But that patience of God connot be abused forever. Only a year after this Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks, and the very men who would not acknowledge the Vicar of Christ as their spiritual head came under the barbarous yoke of the Infidel, and felt all the weight of Mohammedan tyranny and oppression. The grand old Church of St. Sophia was converted into a mosque!

21. The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus, in 1492, added another hemisphere to the wide domain of the Catholic Church. While the degenerate Greeks withdrew from her bosom, and other restless and headstrong children were soon to rise up against her in various parts of Europe, the Church was more than compensated for such defections by the addition of a New World. Thus a Divine Hand guides the events of time, and history, no less than the heavens, declares the power and glory of God.

CHAPTER III

FROM THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.—A. D. 1517 TO 1908.

THE sixteenth century seemed to usher in the dawn of a new and splendid era of peace, progress, and prosperity; but the pleasing illusion was brief, and was dispelled as soon as the tocsin of religious strife sounded in Germany. The great battle of religious opinion commenced, and Europe was soon filled with rage, scandal, and moral misery. It is an oft-told and bitter chapter of history that must here be recounted with moderation.

2. On the accession, in 1513, of Pope Leo X to the chair of St. Peter, he determined to push forward to completion a great project conceived by his predecessor, Julius II, the erection at Rome of a magnificent temple of Catholic worship.

What is said of the fate of Constantinople?—21. What is remarked of the discovery of America?

CHAPTER III.—1. How did the sixteenth century dawn? What great battle soon commenced?—2. What is said of Pope Leo X?

This was the beginning of the celebrated St. Peter's Church. In 1517, Pope Leo published a Bull, in which he granted ample indulgences to all who would contribute to so laudable an undertaking. The nature of an indulgence, and the conditions always required to gain it, are clearly set forth in this Bull.*

3. The Archbishop of Mayence was appointed by the Pope to carry out the intentions of the Bull in Germany. He nominated Father John Tetzel, a Dominican, to be the chief preacher of the indulgences. It asserted that abuses were committed in the publication of the indulgences and in collecting the contributions of the faithful; but whatever these abuses were, it is certain that they were not sanctioned by either the Pope or the Church.

4. On similar occasions, when a crusade or the like was to be promoted, the Augustinian Fathers were usually appointed to announce it from the pulpit. At this time, however, they had the mortification to see the Dominicans preferred before them. The circumstance tended to pique the Augustinians, and led them to reprobate, in the most pointed manner, the misconduct of the member of a rival Order. The most conspicuous of those who publicly denounced the abuses committed by Tetzel was Martin Luther, a member of the Order of St. Augustine, a doctor of theology and professor in the University of Wittenberg. In the warmth of his invectives, Luther passed from the abuses to contest the efficacy of the indulgences themselves. The university over which he presided, and the elector of Saxony,

* "An indulgence is simply a remission, in whole or in part, through the superabundant merits of Jesus Christ and His Saints, of the temporal punishment due to God on account of sin, after the guilt and eternal punishment have been remitted."—Cardinal Gibbons.

See *The Faith of Our Fathers*, chap. xxvii.

"An indulgence is merely a sequel to the Sacrament of Penance. It removes only the temporal penalty, which may remain due after the sin itself and the eternal punishment due to it have been already remitted; and, according to its very nature, it cannot take effect until all grievous sin has been already pardoned through sincere repentance and the Sacrament of Penance."—Archbishop Spalding.

See Spalding's *History of the Protestant Reformation*, Vol. I., p. 118.

What did he publish in 1517?—3. Who was appointed by the Archbishop of Mayence to preach the indulgences in Germany? What is remarked of alleged abuses?—4. Who was the most conspicuous, etc.? In the warmth of his invectives, what did Luther do?

espoused his interest. The dispute was maintained for some time with much earnestness between the Papal commissioners and the divines of Frankfort.

5. In the meantime, his doctrine, which now began to excite universal attention, was announced to the Sovereign Pontiff at Rome. Leo X, in 1520, published a Bull in which he condemned the opinions of Luther, and called on him to retract his errors and to burn his writings, and placed him under the censure of excommunication unless he should comply within a given time. Luther, at first, was loud in his protestations of submission. "I throw myself at the feet of your Holiness," he wrote to the Pope, "and submit to you with all that I have and all that I am. * * * Pronounce either for me or against me. * * * I will receive your voice as that of Christ Himself, who presides, and speaks through you." But soon his sincerity was tested, and he was found utterly wanting. He then determined to appeal from the Pope to a General Council, but being protected by the elector of Saxony, he resolved to pursue a more decided course. At length, finding himself excommunicated and his opinions condemned, he no longer observed any restraint, but publicly burnt the Papal Bull in the presence of a vast assemblage of the people in the city of Wittenberg, and from that moment he renounced the authority of the Sovereign Pontiff, and ceased to be a son of the Catholic Church.

6. This circumstance tended materially to advance his cause. The people on a sudden lost that reverential awe which had formerly impressed them for everything proceeding from the Roman Pontiff, and also the confidence which they had always reposed in the efficacy of indulgences. Luther, perceiving that his doctrines had caused considerable ferment in the empire, thought prudent to withdraw for some time from public view. He retired to a castle belonging to his protector, the Duke of Saxony. In this retreat he digested his new system for religious change. Having already renounced the Papal supremacy, he next rejected Transubstantiation, the Sacrifice of the Mass, purgatory, and the utility of prayers for the dead; also the invocation and in-

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5. In the meantime, what took place? In 1520, what did Pope Leo publish? How did Luther act at first? What did he publicly do?—6. What is said of the people? Where did Luther retire? What did he reject?

tercession of the Saints, and finally, monastic vows, celibacy of the clergy, and the merit of good works.

7. At the solicitation of the Pope and the princes of Germany, Charles V, who had lately succeeded to the imperial throne, assembled a diet at Worms in 1521, for the purpose of taking some measures relative to the new doctrines. Luther, without being the least intimidated by the late censures fulminated against him, appeared before the assembly, boldly defended all that he had done or written, and in conclusion declared that his conscience would not permit him to make the least retraction whatever. An imperial edict was passed, which ordered his writings to be burnt, and himself to be placed under arrest. Under these circumstances Luther thought it proper again to withdraw, but the sudden departure of the Emperor to Spain rendered the edict ineffectual.

8. Lutheranism, or the Reformation, as it was now called, spread rapidly through the different states of Germany. From Upper Saxony it extended over the northern districts, the principalities of Brunswick and Mecklenburg. It next passed into the Palatinate, Lunenburg, Magdeburg, and most of the towns along the coast of the Baltic, as far as Prussia. In 1530, the Lutheran directors published their confession of faith, in twenty-one articles, which are called the Confession of Augsburg. The following year is distinguished for the famous League of Smalkald, when the confederate princes of the confession solemnly bound themselves to support each other in their protest against all compulsory measures that the Emperor, Charles V, might adopt against them. From their protest against a decree of Charles V and the Diet of Spires, those professing the new opinions have acquired the name of Protestants.

9. At the Diet of Augsburg, the princes who had signed the confession, pledged themselves to abide the decision of a General Council to be convened by the Sovereign Pontiff. Accordingly, Pope Paul III convoked a General Council to meet at Trent in 1545, for the purpose of terminating the religious contests which had so long disturbed the tranquillity

7. In 1521, what was done? What is said of Luther before this assembly? What was passed?—8. How had the Reformation spread? In 1530, what was published? For what is the following year distinguished. How was the name of Protestant acquired?—9. At the diet of Augsburg, what did the princes pledge themselves? When was the Council of Trent convoked and concluded?

of the empire and of all Europe. This celebrated synod was not concluded before the year 1563, at which time the Protestants thought proper not to be ruled by its decrees. They had broken forever with the ancient Faith. In the meantime, a treaty of peace was concluded at Passau, between Charles V and the princes of Germany, which secured to the Protestants religious toleration and full liberty of conscience.

10. Among those who bore a prominent part with Luther, in the early part of the Reformation, were Calvin, Zuing'lius, Melanch'thon, Car'lostadius, and Be'za. The new religious movement soon extended into Sweden and Denmark, and was firmly established in the city of Geneva and the Swiss cantons by Calvin. It was about this time that Henry VIII, of England, applied for a divorce from his virtuous wife, Catharine of Aragon; but being disappointed in his application, he renounced the authority of the Pope, and assumed the title of the supreme head of the English Church. Under his successor, Edward VI, through the instrumentality of Cranmer, the new doctrines were effectually established in that kingdom. Scotland soon became the theatre of change through the preaching of Knox, who had imbibed the principles of Calvin during his residence at Geneva; nor were France and Ireland long behind in being visited by the strange doctrines, which brought them such bitterness, bloodshed, and destruction. "Pride and avarice," said Frederick the Great, "caused the Reformation in Germany, lawless love in England, and love of novelty in France."*

11. While thousands were deserting the ancient Faith of their fathers, the Catholic Church beheld with pleasure the formation of a religious society of men destined to carry the light of the Gospel to nations over which the gloom of paganism still hung. The founder of this new Order, Ignatius of Loyola, was born in the year 1491, of a noble family in Spain. He grew up to manhood, a proud, aspiring soldier, and soon became known as a fearless and accomplished com-

* For a more detailed account of the Protestant Reformation, see Cobbett's *History of the Reformation,* and Spalding's *History of the Protestant Reformation.*

In the meantime, what was concluded at Passau?—10. Who bore a prominent part with Luther? What is said of Henry VIII of England? Of Scotland? Of France, and Ireland?—11. What did the Catholic Church behold? Who was the founder of this new Order? What did he become?

mander. At the storming of Pampeluna he was severely wounded, and while confined to a sick room he read the lives of the Saints. Grace touched the young nobleman's heart. He began a new life. On the 15th of August, in the year 1534, Ignatius and nine companions by vow consecrated themselves to God for the purpose of promoting His service, and procuring the salvation of souls. In 1537, they repaired to Rome, and made an offer of their services to Pope Paul III. The Pontiff gave them a gracious reception, applauded their zeal, and in 1540 erected them into a religious body, under the title of the Society of Jesus.

12. Such, in brief, was the origin of that wonderful religious institute, which from its first years assumed the stature of a colossus, which has peopled heaven with saints and filled the world with the renown of its name and its achievements. "It was an evil day for new-born Protestantism," says Parkman, "when a French artilleryman struck down Ignatius Loyola in the breach of Pampeluna." Shortly after the foundation of the Society of Jesus, its members rapidly increased, and in a few years they had colleges established in various towns of Italy, Portugal, and Spain. St. Francis Xavier, one of the first companions of St. Ignatius, was sent to carry the light of Christianity to the pagan nations of the East. The principal scene of his efforts was in the empire of Japan. Thence he passed over to China, where he died in 1552. So abundant were the fruits of his labor, that in the short space of one month, he is said to have baptized with his own hand ten thousand persons. Catholic missionaries also penetrated into the trackless wilds of America, and millions of Indians came into the Church. Thus Asia and America more than repaired her losses in Europe.

13. When the discontented leaders of the new religious movement cast off allegiance to the Church founded by Christ, and denied many of the doctrines of the ancient Faith, it was but the first step on a wide road of endless variation. Each struck out a path for himself, and, perhaps, founded a Church of his own. Hence arose the Lutherans, Calvinists, Angli-

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How was he wounded? And what resulted? What was done on the 15th of August? And in the year 1534? What did the Pontiff do?—12. What is Parkman's remark? Who was St. Francis Xavier? Where was the chief scene of his labor? When did he die? What is said of Catholic missionaries in America?—13. What is said of the course taken by the discontented leaders of the new religious movement? What did each do? Hence what arose?

cans, Presbyterians, Methodists, Quakers, and hosts of others, all professing different creeds and rules of discipline, but all, or nearly all, taking the Bible as their sole rule of faith, and claiming the right of private interpretation.

14. When the sixteenth century dawned on Christian Europe, there was unity of religious belief. Protestantism was unknown. The great nations were one in Faith—Catholic. The close of the same century, however, beheld a vast change. It seemed like the work of an awful whirlwind. In many places the very landmarks of the ancient Faith had been swept away. Old temples of worship resounded with new and strange doctrines. For the Catholic Church it was a period of severe conflict; but the marvellous institution which had survived the repeated and tremendous assaults of the whole pagan empire of Rome was not likely to perish amid the wild and bitter revolution raised by her own wayward children.

15. Among the religious events of the seventeenth century may be noted the rise of Jan'senism, which took its name from Janse'nius, Bishop of Ypres. The Jansenists seemed to delight in religious gloom. All was vigor and extreme severity in their spiritual teaching. They wished to make God a tyrant instead of a merciful Father. They condemned frequent confession and Communion. They taught that a General Council is above the Pope. They toiled hard to banish joy from religion, and to introduce the demon of melancholy. But the Church condemned those gloomy fanatics and their false doctrines, and cut them off from her communion.

16. Among the saintly and illustrious personages who added to the glory of the Christian religion in the seventeenth century were St. Francis de Sales, Bishop of Geneva, doctor of the Church and founder of the Visitation Nuns; St. Vincent de Paul, founder of the Sisters of Charity; John Baptist de la Salle, founder of the Brothers of the Christian Schools; and the great sacred orators, Bos'suet, Fen'elon, Mas'sillon, and Bour'daloue. During this age the ancient

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14. How was Europe when the sixteenth century dawned? What change did the close of the same century witness? For the Church, what kind of a period was it?—15. What is said of the rise of Jansenism? In what did the Jansenists seem to delight? What is remarked of their spiritual teaching? Did the Church condemn the Jansenists?—16. Name some of the great Saints of the seventeenth century. The sacred orators.

Faith lighted up the forest wilds of America; and among those who sealed their teaching with their martyr-blood were the noble Jesuits, Jo'gues, who was murdered by the Mohawks in New York, and De Bre'beuf, and Lal'emant, who were tortured to death by the savages of Western Canada. Father Marquette, S. J., discovered the Mississippi, preached the Gospel in the Great West, and died on the shores of Lake Michigan.

17. The eighteenth century was an age in which the Church had to maintain a ceaseless combat with irreligious reaction and avowed infidelity. Luther, Calvin, and their followers, had tried to alter religious truth—as if truth could be changed by man; but some of the boldest of their followers went still further, and denied the sacred truths of religion altogether. This was simply the logical result of the confusion in religion produced by the Protestant Reformation. Discontented minds first protested against the ancient Faith; and thus the way was opened to others, who protested against every religion. Those impious men sneered at all things sacred, and called themselves "philosophers." Such were Bayle, Diderot, Rousseau, Voltaire, and a host of others, whose writings caused the loss of faith and moral ruin to thousands. It was shortly before this that the Free Masons arose in England, and soon established their dark and dangerous oath-bound society in other countries.* They were condemned by the Church.

18. The latter part of the eighteenth century was a critical period for the Church, as Europe was daily approaching an abyss of misfortune. Infidel writers, secret societies, corrupt and haughty monarchs, and irreligious governments leagued together for the destruction of the Catholic religion.

* The modern "Free Masons" are of English origin, and date from the seventeenth century. They are not, as their name would seem to indicate, workers in brick or stone. Nor have they anything in common with the Catholic Free Masons of the Middle Ages, but the name. From Great Britain the "Free Masons" spread their society over Europe. Lord Derwentwater introduced the first lodge into France in 1725. The history of Freemasonry has been overlaid with fiction and absurdity.

What noble priests were murdered by the Indians?—17. What is said of the eighteenth century? What is said of the boldest of the followers of Luther and Calvin? Who were some of the so-called philosophers of the eighteenth century? What is said of the Free Masons?—18. Describe the latter part of the eighteenth century. Who were leagued together for the destruction of the Christian religion?

The Jesuits had the distinguished honor of being the first victims immolated to the fury of those powerful forces. The sentinels of the ancient Faith, they were the first to feel the vengence of its enemies. All their houses in Portugal and its colonies were suppressed in 1758. Four years later the Jesuits were banished from France; and Spain, Italy, and Austria soon followed in the work of their humiliation and punishment. But even this did not satisfy their enemies. Nothing less than the utter annihilation of the Society of Jesus was demanded. The situation of Europe was truly desperate. Pope Clement XIV, was pressed on all sides. Threats of schism from the so-called Catholic governments were heard in case he did not comply. And thus painfully placed between two evils, the Holy Father accepted what he considered the lesser—he suppressed the Society of Jesus, by a Brief dated July 21, 1773. Infidelity raised a howl of triumph, and soon the Catholic world felt the loss of her devoted sons.

19. The sacrifice of the Jesuits, however, did not calm the storm. Joseph II, Emperor of Austria, encroached on the rights of the Church, and nearly caused a schism. Immorality and irreligion were making swift and awful progress. At length, the French Revolution fell like a thunderbolt on Europe, and blood flowed in torrents. Louis XVI was beheaded, and countless priests, Bishops, and others were murdered. It was a frightful period, marked by scenes of appalling barbarity. For a time the Christian religion was abolished by the wild revolutionists of France; and the world seemed to be falling back into the chaos of paganism. But the rock-built Church of ages outlived the fearful tempest. Here we cannot enter into details as to how the Christian religion was restored to France, and the fall of Napoleon led to the return to Rome of the exiled and sorely persecuted Pope Pius VII. The Society of Jesus was reëstablished. In the words of De Bonald, "If a Pope under constraint suppressed the Jesuits, a Pope in freedom reëstablished them."

Who were the first victims? When were the houses of the Jesuits suppressed in Portugal? What other nations followed in the work of suppression? What is remarked of the Pope and the so-called Catholic governments? When were the Jesuits suppressed?—19. Did the sacrifice of the Jesuits calm the storm? What fell on Europe like a thunderbolt? What was the result?

20. The withering infidelity of the eighteenth century, followed by the frightful excesses of the French Revolution, and the destructive wars of Napoleon, had sobered the mind of Europe. The true religion had proved worthy of veneration, and even the wicked ceased scoffing at it. A more liberal feeling began to animate the Christian world. The Catholics of the British Islands seriously commenced to think of casting off the shackles of religious oppression in which they had been bound since the reign of Queen Elizabeth. It was especially the Irish Catholics, who, age after age, had groaned under the galling tyranny of the Penal Laws.* "These Catholics," wrote the great Bishop Doyle, in 1824, "have for nearly three centuries been passing through an ordeal of persecution more severe than any recorded in history. I have read of the persecutions of Nero, Domitian, Genseric, and Attila, with all the barbarities of the sixteenth century. I have compared them with those inflicted on my own country, and I protest to God that the latter, in my opinion, have exceeded in duration, extent, and intensity, all that has ever been endured by mankind for justice's sake." Catholic emancipation became a fact in 1829, when the doors of the British Parliament were opened to Catholic members.

21. The election of Pius IX to the papal throne in 1846, marked a new era in the history of the Church. Though banished from Rome by the revolutionists in 1848, he returned in 1850. He reëstablished the Catholic Hierarchy in England. The Immaculate Conception of the Most Blessed Virgin was defined an article of Faith in 1854. Pius IX convoked the General Council of the Vatican in 1869; and one of its acts was to define the Infallibility of the Sovereign Pontiff in all matters of faith and morals, when teaching *ex cathedra.* In 1870, the government of Italy snatched Rome from the Pope. In 1872, Germany began to draw up a code of penal laws, known as the "Falk Laws." The Jesuits and other religious orders were expelled, and a

* See "Ireland," page 350.

20. What had sobered the mind of Europe? What is said of the Catholics of the British Islands? Of the Irish Catholics? What did Bishop Doyle write? When did Catholic emancipation take place?—21. What did the election of Pius IX mark? What did he reëstablish in England? What article of Faith was defined in 1854? When did the Council of the Vatican assemble? What did it define? What is said of the Italian government? Of Germany?

vigorous persecution against the Church commenced. The aged Vicar of Christ had much to endure, but he was equal to the trying situation, and manfully defended the rights of religion until his death, in 1878, when he was succeeded by the illustrious Leo XIII.

22. The rule of the new Pontiff illustrates the wisdom of the choice. His first important encyclical—on Modern Errors—appeared in 1878. It was followed (1879) by that on The Scholastic Philosophy; the next year by that on Christian Matrimony; the next year by the Origin of Civil Power; in 1885 by The Christian Constitution of the State; subsequently by an important Encyclical on Labor Problems. These papers are monuments of learning and wisdom.

23. A striking tribute to Leo's high character is his having been selected (a unique event in modern times) by Prussia and Spain to arbitrate in a controversy between those powers in reference to the right of possession in certain islands. His letters to the French prelates, counselling loyal submission to the *de facto* government, confirm the estimate (already drawn from the Encyclicals) of his political sagacity. In 1891, he established the Catholic Hierarchy in Japan, as a few years before he had done in the East Indies.

February 19, 1893, Leo commemorated his Episcopal Jubilee. His Jubilee as a priest he had previously celebrated. Eminent alike for piety and learning, an accomplished diplomat, wise in political as in spiritual affairs, Leo XIII impressed himself on the Church and on the age, and history will rank him among the foremost of the Popes. In August, 1908, he was succeeded by Pius X, the present enlightened Pontiff.

24. In 1790, the Catholic Church in the United States counted but one Bishop, a few dozen priests, and about thirty thousand laymen. There were no Catholic colleges, convents, asylums or hospitals, at the time of the Revolution. A century later (1890) the Church had one Cardinal, fourteen Archbishops, seventy-three Bishops, over nine thousand priests; thirty-three ecclesiastical seminaries, with two thousand five hundred seminarians; eight thousand five

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When did Pius IX die?—22. When were the Encyclicals issued? And on what subjects?—23. By whom and what was Leo XIII selected to arbitrate? What does this show? What events in 1891? In 1893? How does Leo stand among Popes?—24. Give statistics of the Church in 1790, and in 1890.

hundred churches, nearly four thousand chapels and stations, one hundred and seventeen colleges, and upwards of six hundred academies; three thousand five hundred parish-schools, with more than seven hundred thousand pupils; six hundred and forty charitable institutions, and a membership of over eight millions. The growth of the ancient Faith has been marvellously rapid in this Republic, aided, as it has been, by emigration from Ireland, Germany, and other countries.

In the section on the United States there were briefly noticed several interesting ecclesiastical events of the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Beyond our own country there have recently occurred much more important events in the career of the Church. Of these, the hostile attitude of France, as seen in some provisions of the Law of Separation (1905), is, perhaps, the chief. That, too, has been discussed in another place. The anti-clerical demonstrations in Spain have also been mentioned, though hitherto nothing has been said of similar signs in Portugal. For these defections much compensation will be found in the improved status of the Church in Germany, as well as in England. The newspapers have made familiar the details of the Eucharistic Congress that assembled in London during the summer of 1908. If the preceding paragraph attempted to describe in 1909 the condition of the Church in the United States it would seem like the language of exaggeration, so great has been the progress in the last decade.

25. "The Catholic Church," says Lord Macaulay, "is still sending forth to the furtherest ends of the world missionaries as zealous as those who landed in Kent with Augustine, and still confronting hostile kings in the same spirit with which she confronted Attila. The number of her children is greater than at any former age. Her acquisitions in the New World have more than compensated her for what she lost in the Old. Her spiritual ascendency extends over the vast countries which lie between the plains of the Missouri and Cape Horn—countries which a century hence may not improbably

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Events between 1875 and 1900 are mentioned in what part of the *Compendium?* What is the most important ecclesiastical event of the present decade? Where has the Church been making some gains? Mention an important congress of 1908. What is said of the progress of the Church in the United States?—25. Recite the quotation from Lord Macaulay, as given in paragraph 25.

contain a population as large as that which now inhabits Europe.

26. "The Catholic Church saw the commencement of all the governments and of all the ecclesiastical institutions that now exist in the world, and we feel no assurance that she is not destined to see the end of them all. She was great and respected before the Saxon set foot in Britain—before the Frank had crossed the Rhine—when Grecian eloquence still flourished at Antioch—when idols were worshipped in the Temple of Mecca. And she may still exist in undiminished vigor when some traveller from New Zealand shall, in the midst of a vast solitude, take his stand on a broken arch of London Bridge to sketch the ruins of St. Paul's!"

Recite paragraph 26.

BOOK XX

SHORT BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF EMINENT PERSONAGES

Abraham, the immediate progenitor of the Hebrew nation, was the son of Terah, and born in Chaldea. After the death of his father, he removed into the land of Canaan, which God promised to give to his posterity. In the one hundredth year of his age his son Isaac was born. After passing through various scenes of life, he was called to the severe trial of offering up his son Isaac in sacrifice at the command of the Deity. All his fondest hopes were reposed in that son, yet he hesitated not a moment in the execution of the Divine behest. But the moment, however, in which his arm was raised to take the life of his son, God interposed, and accepted the obedience of the patriarch in the place of the sacrifice, commended his faith, and thus rescued Isaac from his impending fate. Abraham died at the age of one hundred and seventy-five years.

Adam, the first of the human race, created by the Almighty from the dust of the earth, and placed in the delightful Garden of Eden, with only one restriction laid upon him, namely, to abstain from eating the fruit of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil; this injunction, however, he violated; and in consequence of his disobedience, he was driven from the earthly Paradise. He died at the age of nine hundred and thirty years.

Adams, JOHN, the second President of the United States, was born at Braintree, Mass., in the year 1735. This distinguished patriot and statesman was educated at Harvard College, from which he was graduated in 1755. With his cousin, Samuel Adams, he was among the first of the New England leaders to advocate separation from England. He was a member of the committee that drafted the Declaration of Independence, and Jefferson is authority for the general opinion that it was the eloquence of John Adams that persuaded the Continental Congress to adopt it. His eminent services at home and abroad singled him out for high office under the Constitution. He was twice chosen to the Vice-Presidency, and, on Washington's refusal of a third term, succeeded to the office of President. He died on the fiftieth anniversary of American independence, July 4, 1826.

Addison, JOSEPH, an elegant English essayist and poet, was the son of a clergyman, and born in the year 1672. His merits as a writer procured for him public employment, and in 1717 he was raised to the office of Secretary of State. His most admired pro-

ductions in prose are to be found in the Spectator. He is distinguished for a delicate and gentle humor, and his style is remarkable for felicity and grace of expression, though not for rigorous accuracy. His poetry is less admired. His tragedy of Cato, however, has some merits. Addison died at the age of fifty-seven.

Alexander, THE GREAT, the son of Philip, king of Macedon, was born at Pella, three hundred and fifty six years before the Christian era. At the age of ten years, he was placed for education under the care of Aristotle. When he came to the throne, he immediately determined on the invasion of Asia; defeated Darius in three sanguinary battles; reduced Egypt, Media, Syria, Persia, and spread his conquests over a great part of India. On his return from India, he made Babylon the seat of his Asiatic empire, where he died in the thirty-second year of his age, of a fever occasioned, it is said, by excessive intemperance. Alexander was the most renowned military hero of antiquity, surpassing all others in the rapidity, extent and splendor of his conquests; but perhaps no other individual ever inflicted greater misery on mankind, if, in addition to the slaughter occasioned by his own wars, we take into consideration the influence which his example has had on the career of others, who have made him their model. He possessed ability and talents which might have rendered him distinguished as a statesman and a benefactor to mankind, yet his military achievements alone have acquired him the surname of Great.

Anacreon, a Greek poet, who flourished about five hundred years before the Christian era. His Odes have been much admired for their sweetness, gayety, and elegance. He lived to the age of eighty-five years, and his death was occasioned by being choked by the seed of a grape.

An'gelo, MICHAEL, an illustrious painter, sculptor, and architect, was born in Italy in 1474. In architecture he surpassed all the moderns, and is thought to have been the greatest designer that ever lived. His most celebrated painting is the Last Judgment. His architectural abilities are best displayed in the celebrated St. Peter's Church at Rome, the building of which he completed. His style is that of grandeur and sublimity, united with the utmost simplicity and beauty. This great Catholic genius died in the ninetieth year of his age.

Aqui'nas, THOMAS, the prince of Christian philosophers, was born at Belcastro, Italy, in 1226. He was educated by the Benedictine Fathers of Monte-Cassino and at the University of Naples. At an early age he became a Dominican, and acquired a distinguished reputation as a philosopher and theologian. He declined all dignities and entirely devoted himself to prayer, study, teaching, and writing. His students called him the "Angelic Doctor," and to this day he is known by that beautiful title. The works of St. Thomas fill nineteen folio volumes; but the substance of them all is summed up in his celebrated masterpiece—the *Summa Theologica.* This great Doctor of the Church died in 1274. He is the patron of schools and scholars.

Archime'des, the most celebrated of ancient mathematicians, was born at Syracuse, Sicily, about 287 B. C. His life was entirely devoted to science. He enriched mathematics with discoveries of

the highest importance—discoveries on which modern mathematicians have founded their methods of measuring curved surfaces and solids. He is the only one of the ancients that contributed anything satisfactory on the theory of mechanics and hydrostatics. He first established the truth that a body plunged into a fluid loses as much of its weight as is equal to the weight of an equal volume of the fluid. During the siege of Syracuse by the Romans, he exerted all his wonderful ingenuity in the defence of his native city; and when it was taken by surprise, in 212, Archimedes fell by the hand of a rude soldier.

A'ristotle, one of the greatest geniuses of all time, was born at Stagyra, in Macedonia, 384 B. C. His father was a famous physician. He had an illustrious teacher in Plato. The writings of Aristotle treat on almost every branch of the knowledge of his time. Moral and natural philosophy, metaphysics, mechanics, grammar, criticism, and politics, all occupied his pen. He spent three years in educating Alexander the Great, who was, no doubt, deeply indebted to such a master. He was moderate in his meals, slept little, and was indefatigably industrious. He taught in the Lyceum at Athens. The great philosopher had long been afflicted with indigestion, and at length sank under this malady. A few moments before his death, he is said to have uttered these words: "I entered this world in impurity; I have lived in anxiety; I depart in perturbation. Cause of causes, pity me." He died at the age of sixty-three years.

Augustine, SAINT, one of the greatest Doctors of the Church, was born at Tagaste, a town of Numidia, Africa, in 354. His mother was St. Monica. He pursued his studies chiefly at Carthage, but here he fell into many vices, which he bewails in his Confessions. He even became a heretic, to the inexpressible sorrow of his good mother. But, at length, Augustine went to Italy, followed by the devoted Monica; there the preaching of St. Ambrose touched his heart. He was converted, and became Bishop of Hippo in 395. The best known works of St. Augustine are his Confessions and The City of God, the latter of which is one of the greatest monuments of human genius. The illustrious Doctor died in 430.

Bacon, SIR FRANCIS, a famous English philosopher, was born in 1561. His astonishing faculties were early developed, and gained him slight preferment from Queen Elizabeth. On the accession of James I he rose to power; was made attorney-general, keeper of the seals, Lord Chancellor, and finally raised to the peerage. His elevation excited the envy of his enemies, and he was accused and convicted of bribery and corruption in the office of chancellor; in consequence of which he was fined forty thousand pounds, and sentenced to imprisonment in the Tower. As an author, his *Novum Organum Scientiarum* and his Essays have immortalized his name. While, on the whole, the public life of Lord Bacon was marked by meanness and dishonor, his literary and scientific works shine by the light of a powerful and far-seeing intellect, which towered above those of the other men of his time. He died in 1626.

Bacon, ROGER, an eminent monk and philosopher, was born in the year 1214, in England, of a respectable family, and became a

member of the Franciscan Order. To the comprehensive mind of Bacon, many of the discoveries made by the genius and toil of later ages were known. He was acquainted with the structure of the air-pump, with laws of optics, and the power of glasses. He gave so clear a description of gunpowder, that it is evident that he was its inventor. His writings amount to over eighty treatises on various subjects, but his chief production is his *Opus Majus*, or Great Work, which he wrote while imprisoned through the jealousy of his enemies. He died at the age of eighty.

Bal'mes, DR. JAMES, the most distinguished Spanish philosopher of the last century, was born at Vich, in the year 1810. He received his education at the University of Cervera, where his habits of profound study were known to his acquaintances. "The true method of study," he would say, "is to read little, to select good authors, and to think much." He spent four years studying the *Summa* of St. Thomas Aquinas, and was soon after ordained priest. In 1837 he obtained a professorship in his alma mater. Soon after this he published The Criterion, Logic, Fundamental Philosophy, and his greatest work—European Civilization: or, Protestantism and Catholicity Compared in Their Effects on the Civilization of Europe. Balmes died in 1848, at the early age of thirty-eight. He is one of the really great writers of the nineteenth century.

Basil, THE GREAT, a celebrated Saint and Doctor of the Church, was born in 329, at Cæsarea, the capital of Cappadocia. He was a remarkable student, and formed a lasting friendship with St. Gregory Nazianzen. While studying at Athens, "we knew but two streets," writes Gregory, "and chiefly the first of these, which led us to the church, and to the saintly teachers and doctors who there attended the service of the altar, and with the food of life nourished the flock of Christ. The other street with which we were acquainted—but which we held in much less esteem—was the road to the schools, and to our masters in sciences." As Archbishop of Cæsarea, Basil was a fortress of the Faith. His learning, wonderful eloquence, and majestic virtue awed even the faithless kings and emperors of his time. He wrote in Greek. He was one of the most accomplished orators that ever lived. This great Doctor died in 379.

Bede, THE VENERABLE, an English historian. He was born at Wearmouth, England, about the year 672. In his youth he studied with much diligence, was ordained priest, and soon became eminent for his learning. His most celebrated work is his Ecclesiastical History of England, which he published in 731. He was a man of exemplary piety. A complication of lung troubles saddened his last days; but he supported his affliction with great firmness, and, during his extreme weakness, never omitted his monastic duties. This venerable man died in the year 735.

Belisa'rius was an illustrious general under the Emperor Justinian. He repeatedly saved the Empire by his valor; even when far advanced in years, and scarcely able to wield his sword, he marched against the Huns, who made an irruption into the Empire, and defeated them with great slaughter. In return for his many

services, the suspicious Emperor deprived him of all his honors, and condemned him to an ignominious confinement, which lasted for several months. It is believed that he again recovered the friendship of the Emperor. He died A. D. 565.

Bismarck, OTTO VON. This eminent statesman, a native of Prussia, was born in 1815. He is conspicuous in history as the creator of German Unity. Upon the completion of his studies at Göttingen and Berlin, he entered the diplomatic service of his native country, and early in his career conceived the design of harmonizing the discordant elements in German politics, uniting the independent German states, and placing Prussia at the head of the confederation. The course of events favored his ambition. In 1867, he was the political genius in a short but decisive war with Austria. The result of this conflict was to destroy Austria's influence in the South German states, and to make Prussia, now at the head of the North German Confederation, the foremost military power in Europe. The jealousy of the French Emperor was aroused, and he rashly precipitated war with Prussia. It was Bismarck's second opportunity, and the outcome was equally decisive. The French were beaten disastrously. The South German states became a part of the Confederation, and Bismarck saw the realization of his long-cherished hopes in the completion of German unity and the crowning of King William, of Prussia, as the Emperor of all Germany. His political policy, if high-handed, was brilliant and successful. But a blot is on his fame for the hostile course which his government pursued towards the Church.

Bonaparte, NAPOLEON, was a native of Corsica, where he was born in 1769. The career of this extraordinary man surpassed, in many respects, that of every great conqueror who preceded him. In his twenty-seventh year he was raised to the command of the French army; at the age of thirty, he caused himself to be elected First Consul; and in his thirty-fifth year, he was proclaimed Emperor of France. During the ten years that he possessed the imperial throne he was the most powerful monarch, not only of his age, but of modern times, and made the world tremble at the terror of his name. He raised to the rank of kings his three brothers, his brother-in-law, and three German electors; also Bernadotte, one of his generals, was raised to the throne of Sweden. He united in his person the threefold character of conqueror, usurper, and legislator. He triumphed over civilized enemies; legislated in a refined age, and seized upon the sceptres of his most powerful rivals. To him France is indebted for an admirable code of laws, in the formation of which he was the efficient agent. No man ever enjoyed a greater opportunity of benefiting his fellow-man than Bonaparte; yet this opportunity was cast away, except so far as it suited his insatiable ambition and lust of power, to which he was ready to sacrifice every principle of justice and humanity. He chose to be an Alexander, or a Cæsar, rather than a Washington; a subverter, rather than a protector of liberty; a terror and a scourge, rather than a delight and a blessing to mankind. The close of his eventful life furnishes a most instructive lesson on the instability of all human things, and the vanity of human glory. He died on the island of St. Helena, on the 5th of May, 1821, in the sixth year of his captivity, and fifty-second of his age.

Bossue't, JAMES BENIGNE, an illustrious French Bishop and pulpit orator, was born at Dijon in 1627, and received his early education in the Jesuit College of that city. He finished his studies at Paris, and was made a Doctor of the Sorbonne. He soon obtained distinction as a great preacher, and his writings added to his fame—especially his Exposition of Catholic Doctrine, his Universal History, and his History of the Variations of the Protestant Churches. Bossuet died Bishop of Meaux, in 1704.

Burke, EDMUND, an eminent Irish orator, philosopher, and political writer, was the son of a respectable attorney, at Carlow, where he was born, in 1730. After studying at Trinity College, Dublin, he went to London, and entered at the Middle Temple; but without paying any serious attention to the law, he devoted his time principally to literature and politics. His style and arguments as a writer soon attracted notice, and his Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful gained for him universal admiration. In 1765 he was sent to Parliament, where he combined the character of an elegant writer with that of an eminent speaker. During the war of the American Revolution, he exerted all the power of his eloquence against the oppressive measures of the British. When the French Revolution broke out, he became alarmed at the progress of licentious principles, and with a view to counteracting them in England, he published his celebrated Reflections on the Revolution in France—one of the masterpieces of English literature. For some time before his death, Burke retired from public life. He died in 1797. As an author, his merits are universally acknowledged. He was a writer of the very first order, and excelled in almost every kind of prose composition. His works will live as long as there is an enlightened man in the world.

Burns, ROBERT, a celebrated Scotch poet, was born at Ayr, in 1759. He seems to have been a poet by nature; his poems in the Scottish dialect are remarkable for their beauty, elegance, and simplicity. They no sooner appeared in print, than he was called from the plough to associate with men of letters. He died at the age of thirty-nine. His death was hastened by intemperance, and by the fear and the cares of poverty.

Cæsar, CAIUS JULIUS. This extraordinary man united in his person the threefold character of warrior, historian, and statesman. Though ambition was his ruling passion, yet he possessed the most splendid endowments of genius, and many noble qualities of the heart. Clemency seems to have been his predominant virtue. On passing a small village among the Alps, on his way to take possession of his government in Spain, before the formation of the triumvirate, he remarked, that "he would rather be the first man in that village than the second man in Rome." He frequently made use of this verse of Euripides: "That if right and justice were ever to be violated, they were to be violated for the sake of reigning." In his military career he was probably never surpassed. He was so much the idol of his troops, that in any important conjuncture, his lieutenant could say nothing more impressive to them than, "Soldiers, imagine that Cæsar beholds you!" He fought no less than fifty battles, in which one million one hundred and ninety-two thousand men are said to have been slain.

In the midst of his military enterprises, he found time to become the author of several works, of which only the memoirs of his wars are now extant, and these are much admired for their elegance as well as the correctness of style. As an orator, he would have rivalled Cicero had he devoted himself to the bar; he spoke with the same spirit with which he fought. He was assassinated in the senate-house in the fifty-sixth year of his age, B. C. 44.

Cadmus, a Phœnician, who built Thebes, and was the first who introduced letters into Greece. His alphabet consisted of only sixteen letters, to which eight were afterwards added.

Calvin, JOHN, a coadjutor of Luther in the Reformation, was born at Noyon, in France, July 10, 1509. He spent most of his active life at Geneva, where he filled the chair of divinity, and warmly espoused the cause of the Protestant Reformation. He died in 1564.

Carroll, CHARLES, OF CARROLLTON, one of the most remarkable of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Annapolis, Maryland, in 1737. His father was an accomplished Catholic lawyer of Irish descent. Charles was educated at the Jesuit College of St. Omer, and at London, England; and when he returned home, in 1764, he was one of the most finished scholars in America. From the first dawn of the Revolution, he grasped the principles involved in the contest, and advocated complete independence. He represented his native state in the Continental Congress. He was a member of the United States Senate from 1788 to 1801, when he retired to private life. He lived six years after all the other signers of the Declaration of Independence had passed away, and died, the "last of the Signers," in November, 1832, at the ripe age of ninety-six. In the last year of his life this venerable man said: "I have been blessed with most of the good things which the world can bestow; but what I now look back on with the greatest satisfaction to myself is, that I have practised the duties of my religion."

Cicero, MARCUS TULLIUS, the prince of Roman orators and philosophers, was the son of a Roman knight. His father perceiving his promising abilities, procured for him the most celebrated masters of his time. He served one campaign under Sylla, but on his return to Rome appeared as pleader at the bar, where the greatness of his genius and superior eloquence soon brought him into notice. Having passed through the inferior honors of the state, he was at length elevated to the office of consul; and during his administration, he detected and crushed the conspiracy of Catiline. On this occasion he received the thanks of the people, and was styled "the Father of his country;" but his refusal to second the arbitrary measures of Cæsar and Pompey caused his banishment. He retired to Greece, but was allowed to return after an absence of sixteen months. After the death of Cæsar, he again espoused the Republican party, and thus incurred the hatred of Antony, one of the leading members of the triumvirate, by whose order the illustrious orator was assassinated, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, B. C. 43.

Cobbett, WILLIAM. This distinguished man was born in England in the year 1762, of humble parentage, and possessed but few

educational advantages. In early life he followed the profession of arms as a common soldier, but employed his leisure moments in attentive reading. He soon emerged from this situation, and appeared in public as a bold and elegant writer. The general characteristics of his style are purity, clearness, and masculine vigor; frequently eloquent, but often attended with a strain of torturing sarcasm, contemptuous jocularity, and fierce invective. His History of the Reformation in Great Britain and Ireland is his best known production. He died in 1835.

Columbus, CHRISTOPHER, the discoverer of America and the most illustrious of navigators, was born at Genoa about 1436. He spent a short time at the University of Pavia. At the age of fourteen, however, he entered on a seafaring life, and after a variety of adventures, he went to Lisbon, where he married the daughter of Perestrello, a navigator of considerable eminence, whose journals were very beneficial to Columbus. At this period the attention of the Portuguese was directed towards finding a passage to the East Indies; this they expected to attain by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, and then sailing towards the East. Inflamed by the desire of accomplishing so noble an enterprise, the active and profound mind of Columbus, after attentively comparing the observations of modern pilots with the conjectures of the ancients, at length concluded that, by sailing directly west from Europe across the Atlantic, new countries, which he supposed to form a part of Asia, must infallibly be discovered. The spherical figure of the earth was known, and its magnitude ascertained with some degree of accuracy; and Sir John Mandeville had even demonstrated that it might be circumnavigated. Convinced of the correctness of his theory, Columbus was anxious to test it by experiment. At length, after many delays, he obtained assistance from Isabella, queen of Spain, and on the 3d of August, 1492, sailed on his voyage of discovery. On the 11th of October, the same year, he came in sight of an island, to which he gave the name of San Salvador, one of the Bahamas; he also discovered Cuba and San Domingo, which he called Hispaniola, and returned in March of the following year. He made three other voyages to the New World, in the last of which he was shipwrecked on the coast of Jamaica. Here for a time he obtained astonishing command over the Indians by predicting an eclipse of the moon. He died shortly after his return to Spain, at Valladolid, in the seventieth year of his age, A. D. 1506. Among the illustrious names of modern times none shines brighter than that of Christopher Columbus.

Copernicus, NICHOLAS, an eminent Catholic priest and astronomer, and the discoverer of the true system of the universe, was born at Thorne, in Prussia. He early devoted himself to the study of mathematics, applied his knowledge to an examination of the different theories respecting the universe; and after twenty years of profound investigation, arrived at this important truth, that the sun is placed in the centre of the universe to illuminate and control the whole system. For various reasons he concealed this great discovery for thirty years. At length, through the importunities of his friends, he consented to have his work published; as soon as completed, a copy of it was brought to him, and in a few

hours afterwards he was seized with a violent hemorrhage, which terminated his life, in the seventieth year of his age, A. D. 1543.

Cowper, WILLIAM, a famous English poet, was born in the year 1730. In the early part of his life, he was afflicted with a distressing melancholy brought on by serious reflection on religious subjects; on one occasion he even attempted his life. He did not become an author until the age of fifty years. The first volume of his poems appeared in 1782, and the second volume in 1785. His most admired work is The Task, which abounds with beauty of sentiment, combined with harmony and sweetness of style. The volume of his epistolary correspondence is very great, and as a letter writer he is probably unequaled in our language. Cowper died in 1800, aged seventy.

Dante, one of the greatest poets of all time, was born at Florence, Italy, in 1265. Little is known of his early life. He belonged to a noble Catholic family, and filled many offices of distinction. He spent the closing years of his life in exile, and died in 1321 His immortal work is the *Divina Commedia,* which has been translated into all the languages of Europe.

Demosthenes, the prince of ancient orators, was born at Athens, about 385 B. C. His early education was much neglected, through the treachery of his guardians, who squandered away his property. Perhaps no individual ever aspired to the art of oratory with more impediments to overcome than Demosthenes; and in that art no one ever attained to a higher degree of excellence. Besides an impediment in his speech, he had a weak voice, accompanied with a shortness of breath; the movements of his body, moreover, were most ungraceful. That he might remedy the imperfection in his speech, he accustomed himself to declaim with pebbles in his mouth; and in order to strengthen his voice and lungs, he frequently harangued on the seashore, where the agitation of the waves caused him to exert his utmost strength, that he might be heard above the noise, and at the same time served to give him an idea of the commotion of popular assemblies; and finally, he corrected the awkwardness of his gesture by speaking before a mirror, and by taking lessons from the most accomplished comedians. That he might apply himself more to his studies, he retired to a cave, and shaved one-half of his head, so that he could not decently appear abroad. Having thus qualified himself, he came forth from his retreat, and presented himself before the public. His great ability as an orator soon placed him at the head of the government, where he exerted all the powers of his eloquence against the ambitious designs of Philip, king of Macedon. His orations against that prince are called Philippics, a name since applied to satirical productions. On the death of Alexander the Great, Demosthenes once more attempted to arouse his countrymen to an effort for the recovery of their liberty. The attempt, however, was ineffectual, and Athens was obliged to purchase peace by the sacrifice of ten of her public speakers. Demosthenes, to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, suffered a voluntary death by taking poison, in the sixty-third year of his age, B. C. 322.

Dido was the daughter of Belus, king of Tyre. Her husband was murdered by Pygmalion, the successor of Belus. The discon-

solate princess, with a number of Tyrians, set sail in quest of a settlement. A storm drove them upon the coast of Africa, where they founded the city of Carthage, about the year 800 B. C. The beauty of Dido and the fame of her enterprise gained her many admirers; her subjects wished to compel her to marry the king of Mauritania, but she killed herself rather than enter into a matrimonial alliance with one for whom she could entertain no affection.

Dryden, JOHN, a celebrated English poet, was born in the year 1631. He first exhibited his poetical powers in a eulogium "on Oliver Cromwell;" and this was followed, in 1660, by a poem "On the happy return and restoration of his sacred majesty, Charles II." On the accession of James II, he became a Catholic, and was continued in the office of Poet Laureate, which he had held under Charles. After the revolution he was deprived of all his honors, and from that time until his death he was obliged to rely for subsistence on the immediate profits of his poetical productions. His Ode on St. Cecilia's Day, and his translation of Virgil, Juvenal, and Perseus, are lasting proofs of his poetical genius. His style is flowing and musical, and, at the same time, grand and energetic. His satires are among the best in the language, and he is regarded as the father of modern English prose. He died in the year 1700.

Euclid, one of the greatest mathematicians of antiquity, was born at Alexandria, and flourished about three hundred years before the Christian era. His writings were numerous; but his fifteen books on the elements of geometry, which consist of problems and theorems, with demonstrations, have acquired an imperishable fame, and have suffered but little alteration to the present time.

Euripides, an eminent tragic poet of Greece, was born at Salamis. As a poet, he is peculiarly happy in expressing the passions of love, particularly the more tender and animated; his thoughts are sublime, and his productions abound with many moral reflections. He spent the latter days of his life at the court of Archelaus, king of Macedonia. His end was tragical; in one of his solitary walks, he was attacked and devoured by the hounds of the king, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, A. D. 407.

Franklin, DR. BENJAMIN. This distinguished philosopher and discoverer of electricity was born at Boston, in 1706. In youth, he was apprenticed to an uncle in the printing business. As his occupation allowed him but little time for study, he supplied the deficiency by carefully reading at nights the works which he had printed during the day, and by this means soon acquired extensive information. He was a member of the American Congress during the eventful period of the Revolution. As a public negotiator, he effectually secured the honor and interest of the country. He was Governor of Pennsylvania from 1785 to 1787. He died on the 17th of April, 1790. His discoveries in science have associated his name with that of Newton. He is the father of that branch of physics which explains the laws of the electric fluid, and the utility of lightning-rods will forever point to him as a temporal benefactor of the human race.

Galileo, the founder of experimental science, was an Italian, distinguished for his discoveries in mathematics and astronomy. He embraced the Copernican system, which he endeavored to establish from the Bible. For thus attempting to blend his astronomical theories with the sacred writings, he was summoned before the tribunal of the Inquisition at Rome. Some years after this, he published his Dialogues and Memoirs, in which he again endeavored to raise the system of the rotation of the earth to the dignity of a dogmatical truth. Being again cited before the tribunal at Rome, he was lodged in the palace of Tuscany, and for a short time in the apartment of the attorney-general. After having received his sentence and made his recantation, Galileo obtained permission to visit his native country, where he died at the advanced age of seventy-eight years.

Gibbon, Edward, an eminent English historian, was born at Putney, in 1737. His most important work is The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, which he completed after twenty years' labor. It is an elaborate production, and, as to facts, it is generally accurate. In principle, however, Gibbon was a decided skeptic and unbeliever. He hated the Christian religion. He wrote with a view of establishing his principles; hence, throughout his works the seeds of infidelity are widely disseminated, a fact which renders his productions highly dangerous to the incautious reader. He scoffs at Christianity, and endeavors to turn it to ridicule whenever the opportunity offers. Gibbon died of dropsy in 1794.

Goldsmith, Oliver. This eminent poet, historian, and miscellaneous writer, was born in Ireland in 1729, and educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He made a tour through Europe on foot, and supported himself by playing on the flute. Having at length returned to London, he commenced his literary career. The publication of The Traveller, in 1765, obtained for him a high poetical reputation, with many distinguished friends. The Deserted Village, the most admired of his poetical productions, was published in 1769. His comedies, The Good-natured Man, and She Stoops to Conquer, are also much admired. His History of Rome, History of England, and History of Animated Nature, with the Vicar of Wakefield, are among his principal works. He died in the forty-sixth year of his age. His life and character were eccentric, but interesting. Generosity, good-nature, carelessness, and imprudence were the distinguished features of his disposition. His prodigality always kept him in poverty. Sweetness of fancy and tenderness of feeling are the peculiar features of his poetry. His style is natural and idiomatic, yet in the highest degree elegant and refined.

Grant, General Ulysses S. General Grant was one of the remarkable men of the United States. A native of Ohio, and born in 1822, he received a military education at West Point, and served with distinction in the Mexican war. Returning to the United States, he lived in obscurity in a small town in Illinois, and was forty years old when the war between the Federal Government and the Confederate States (1861) brought him into notice. His military talents at once became conspicuous, and soon he was given a command. His first campaign was against Forts Henry

and Donelson. The capture of these strongholds turned the tide of Federal defeat. From this point success and promotion followed uninterruptedly, till he became commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, and at Appomattox Court-House, Va., 1865, received General Lee's sword, and closed the tremendous civil conflict. He was twice elected to the Presidency. He died in 1885.

Grattan, HENRY, was born at Dublin, Ireland, in 1746, and educated at Trinity College, in his native city. He was called to the Irish bar in 1772. He was a member of the Irish Parliament from 1775 to 1797, in which his pure patriotism and wonderful eloquence raised him to the rank of a great leader of his countrymen. It was chiefly through his efforts that the Irish Parliament regained its legislative independence in 1782. He opposed the union of Ireland and Great Britain in 1800. He afterwards sat in the British Parliament, where, up to his death, in 1820, he was the unflinching advocate of Catholic emancipation. Grattan's character was stainless, and he was equally great as a man, an orator, and a patriot. Lord Byron declared him to be an orator—

> "With all that Demosthenes wanted endowed,
> And his rival or master in all he possessed."

Guttenberg, JOHN, the inventor of the art of printing. It has been contended that Lewis Coster, of Haarlem, invented the use of movable type; but it seems that opinion is without foundation, and that the art of printing, as practised at present, was discovered by Guttenberg, of Mayence, about the year 1438, although it was several years after this period before the art was brought to any perfection. In 1450, Guttenberg entered into partnership at Mayence with John Faust. It was about this period that the method of casting the character in metal was discovered. This improvement is supposed to have been made by Schæffer, who assisted them at this time. The first printers carried their types about in bags, and printed small pamphlets and the like. The first entire book issued from their press was the Psalter, in Latin, printed at Mentz in 1457, of which there are two copies yet extant, one in the imperial library at Vienna, the other purchased by Louis XVIII, of France, for the sum of twelve thousand francs. A complete edition of the Catholic Bible, in Latin, was printed in two folio vols., at Mentz, in the year 1462. From this epoch the progress of typography was rapid, and before the close of the fifteenth century various editions of the Bible, with a vast number of other works, were published in different parts of Europe.

Hamilton, ALEXANDER, one of the most eminent of American statesmen, was born about 1757, in the Island of Nevis, in the West Indies. Coming to America at an early age, he was educated at King's College, now Columbia University, New York. While yet a student he became greatly interested in the controversy between England and her American colonies. During the Revolution he served with distinction, and, though a very young man, had an important command in the assault at Yorktown. His service in the army, however, was not to be compared with that which he rendered in the reorganization of the General Govern-

ment. He was a leading member of the Philadelphia convention of 1787, and was probably the ablest advocate for the adoption of the Constitution framed by that illustrious assembly. He conceived the idea of the Federalist papers, and was their principal author. By President Washington he was appointed Secretary of the Treasury. He organized that department, and did much useful work besides. Of America's constructive statesmen, he is commonly regarded as the greatest. In an unfortunate duel with Aaron Burr, he was killed in 1804.

Henry, PATRICK, the great American orator, was born in the colony of Virginia in 1736. In the early part of his life, he was passionately addicted to pleasure, and averse to toil, even to the labor of study. He married at the age of eighteen, and settled on a farm, but agriculture as well as mercantile pursuits, in which he subsequently engaged, proving unsuccessful, he turned his attention towards the law, and after six weeks' preparatory study he was admitted to practise. He served his country in various posts. In 1765, he was elected a member of the Virginia Legislature, and introduced his celebrated resolutions on the Stamp Act; he afterwards bore a distinguished part during the period of the Revolution. He died at the age of sixty-one, in 1797.

Herodotus, a celebrated historian, was born at Halicarnassus, and is styled the Father of history. His most celebrated work describes the wars of the Greeks against the Persians, from the age of Cyrus to the battle of Mycale. His style abounds in elegance, ease, and sweetness.

Hesiod, an eminent Greek poet, who is supposed to have flourished about the time of Homer. His greatest production is a poem on agriculture, which contains many moral reflections, mingled with instruction for cultivating the fields. His Theogony, another poem, gives a faithful description of the gods of antiquity. So partial were the Greeks to his moral productions, that they required their children to commit them to memory.

Hippocrates, called the Father of medicine, was born in the island of Cos. He devoted his whole attention to medical applications; his writings, a few fragments of which remain, procured him the epithet of divine. He died at the age of ninety-nine years, B. C. 361.

Homer was not only the greatest of the Greek poets, but also the earliest, whose works have survived the devastation of time. He is regarded as the most ancient of all secular classical writers. The place of his nativity is unknown; and several cities claim the honor of having given him birth. Little is known of his parentage, or his circumstances of life; but it is generally agreed that he was a wandering poet, or minstrel. His greatest poems are the Iliad and Odyssey. The Arundelian marbles fix the period in which he flourished at 907 before the Christian era.

Horace, the most famous of the Roman lyric poets, studied at Rome and afterwards at Athens. He accompanied Bru'tus in the civil wars, and at the battle of Philippi he saved his life by flight. From this period he devoted himself to writing verses, and his talents soon recommended him to the patronage of the Emperor Augustus. He died in the fifty-seventh year of his age, B. C. 8.

Hume, DAVID, an historian of some eminence, was born at Edinburgh, in Scotland, in 1711. He was designed by his father for the law, but the turn of his mind led him to literary pursuits. His principal works are his treatise on Human Nature, his Inquiries Concerning the Principles of Morals, and his English History. In principle, Hume, like Gibbon, was a decided skeptic and unbeliever; hence we find the miserable principles of infidelity inculcated throughout his writings. His History of England, though possessing considerable merits in perspicuity and purity of style, is far from being accurate in many particulars. He died in 1776.

Isaiah, the Prophet, was the son of Amos. He prophesied upwards of seven hundred years before the Christian era. He was the greatest and most sublime of all the prophets. He boldly censured the vices of his time, and, according to the Hebrew tradition, he was put to death by being sawed in two, during the reign of king Manasse.

Jackson, GENERAL ANDREW. This distinguished man was born on the 16th of March, 1767, in the Waxhaw settlement, South Carolina. His parents were emigrants from Ireland, and followed the industrious occupation of farming. Andrew, while yet in his infancy, was bereft of his father, and left, with two elder brothers, to the care of a devoted mother. During the war of the Revolution, Jackson, though young, partook largely of the calamities of that eventful period. One of his brothers was slain in the battle of Stono; he himself, with the other brother, was taken prisoner, and carried to Camden. During his captivity, Andrew was ordered, by a British officer, to wipe the mud off his boots, which he peremptorily refused to do, demanding the treatment due to a prisoner of war. The officer, enraged at this refusal, drew his sword and struck at the head of Jackson, who warded off the blow with his left hand, but received a wound, the mark of which he carried with him to his grave. His brother, for a similar offence, received a wound upon his head, inflicted by a sword; of this he eventually died. After the war, he turned his attention towards the law, and was admitted to practise at the age of twenty. In 1788, he located himself permanently at Nashville, Tennessee. In 1796, he was elected one of the members of a convention assembled to frame a constitution for the State. In the following year he was sent to Congress, and the year after to the Senate of the United States, which situation he shortly resigned, not being satisfied with his political duties at Washington. On his return from Congress, he was appointed one of the Judges of the Supreme Court of Tennessee. During the war of 1812 he received the appointment of major-general in the regular army, and defeated the British on the 8th of January 1815, in the memorable battle of New Orleans. In 1828, he was elected to the office of President of the United States. After the expiration of his second term, he retired again to the repose of the Hermitage, where he died on the 8th of June, 1845, in the seventy-eighth year of his age.

Jefferson, THOMAS. This eminent American statesman was born at Shadwell, Virginia, in 1743. He was elected a member of the Continental Congress in 1775, and was one of the committee

appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence, which document, with a few alterations, was his own composition. In 1801, he was elected to the office of President of the United States, and after serving to the expiration of his second term, he retired from public life to his seat at Monticello, where he died on the 4th of July, 1826. In private life, he was hospitable and agreeable in his manners; in public, the uncompromising, sagacious, and talented leader of the Democratic party.

Johnson, SAMUEL, an eminent lexicographer, critic, and essayist, was born at Litchfield, England, 1709. He commenced his studies at Oxford, but owing to the insolvency of his father, he was obliged to leave the university prematurely. Involved in poverty, and without any prospect before him, after trying various expedients to obtain a livelihood, he went to London in quest of employment in 1737. From this period until 1763, he was engaged in literary labors, under the pressure of poverty and disappointment. On one occasion he was arrested for a debt of five guineas, from which he was relieved by the kindness of a friend. His first important work was his celebrated English Dictionary, which he completed in the space of seven years, and for which he received only the sum of one thousand five hundred and seventy-five pounds sterling, or about seven thousand eight hundred and seventy-five dollars. The Rambler and The Lives of Poets are among some of his principal productions. He died in 1784, aged seventy-five years.

Joseph, the patriarch, was one of the twelve sons of Jacob, whose eventful life is so pathetically described in the Scripture. He was sold by his brothers to merchants, who carried him into Egypt, where, through the interposition of Heaven, he finally became the ruler of that country, under Pharaoh. The triumph of his innocence, as the reward of his piety, proves the care of God manifested towards the virtuous, and should lead them to place their confidence in His protection under the most trying scenes of life.

Joshua, the successor of Moses, led the people of Israel into the promised land, and having divided the country among the ten tribes, he died in the one hundred and tenth year of his age.

Jubal is spoken of in the Scripture as "the father of such as handled the harp or organ;" a fact which proves that music must have been one of the earliest arts known and taught among men.

Lacordaire, JOHN BAPTIST HENRY, the most distinguished pulpit orator of France, in our age, was born in 1802. He was educated at Dijon, adopted the law as his profession, and in 1824 began to practise at Paris, where he rose rapidly to distinction. But he suddenly gave up his profession, studied theology, and was ordained priest in 1827. His brilliant courses of sermons at Notre Dame, Paris, filled the vast edifice with admiring audiences. Lacordaire entered the Dominican Order in 1840. In 1860 he was elected a member of the French Academy, and died the following year. His Conferences and his Letters to Young Men have been translated into English. Lacordaire's style is touching, brilliant, and beautiful.

Lincoln, ABRAHAM, President of the United States during the Civil War, was born February 12, 1809, in Hardin county, Kentucky. Several of his kinsmen were persons of consideration, but Abraham's father was a poor man. The lack of systematic instruction was supplied in part by diligent study. Though he worked at various occupations, it was in the law that he won his first unquestioned success. After the disappearance of the Whig party he became a member of the Republican organization. In 1858 he canvassed Illinois in opposition to Senator Douglas, and emerged from the contest a national figure and a recognized leader in the Republican party. Later he became its candidate for the Presidency, and was elected. Soon after his inauguration he endeavored to persuade the Border States to emancipate their slaves and to accept for them compensation from the Federal Government. When his offer was refused, he declared slavery at an end in those states in arms against the government. Tennessee, and parts of Virginia, and Louisiana were excepted from the proclamation. Next to the preservation of the Union, the act of emancipation, which became operative January 1, 1863, is regarded as the greatest of his life. It was adopted from military necessity, and, in his opinion, was indispensable to the preservation of the Union. In 1864 he was reëlected, but was assassinated April 12, 1865. Except Washington, he is regarded as the greatest of our Presidents.

Livy was a distinguished Roman historian, who wrote the history of his country in one hundred and forty books, of which only thirty-five are extant. His style is clear and spirited; his descriptions bold and concise. He died at Padua, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, A. D. 17.

Locke, JOHN, a celebrated English philosopher, was born in the year 1632. By the patronage of Lord Shaftesbury, he held a respectable situation under government, and wrote at that time several political tracts. Shaftesbury, however, being compelled to retire from England, on a charge of being concerned in Monmouth's rebellion, Locke also removed to Holland, where he devoted himself to literary pursuits, but subsequently returned to his native country, and published his Essay on the Human Understanding. The philosophy of Locke is, in many respects, materialistic. He died in the year 1704.

Luther, MARTIN, the celebrated originator of the Protestant Reformation, was born at Isleben, in Saxony, 1483. He was designed by his parents to be a civilian, but the following awful incident directed his attention towards the Church. As he was walking in the fields with a fellow-student, his companion was struck by lightning, and killed by his side. His mind was so much affected by this event, that he formed the resolution of retiring from the world. He accordingly entered the Order of St. Augustine, at Erfurt. From this place he removed to Wittenberg, being appointed professor of theology in the University founded in that city by the elector of Saxony. In 1517, he commenced the so-called Reformation, the particulars of which have been given under the head of The Church. In 1524, he threw aside the monastic habit, and the following year married a nun. He had three sons. The

last of his descendants, a pious Catholic, died recently in Germany. Luther was doubtless a man of great ability, but unscrupulous, violent, and inconsistent. A vein of insanity seems to have run in his remarkable character. He died at his native place in 1546.

Lycurgus, the great Spartan legislator, flourished about the year 884 before the Christian era. He was regent of Sparta during the minority of Charilaus, his nephew. After returning from his travels in Asia and Egypt, he framed the celebrated code of laws for his country which rendered Sparta for so many ages one of the leading states of Greece. Having established his laws, and engaged the citizens not to alter them until his return, he left his country, and by a voluntary death he rendered their establishment effectual.

Manning, CARDINAL. This eminent man was born in the year 1809. Upon the completion of his university studies he took orders in the Church of England, where his zeal and piety, reinforced by high social position and brilliant talents, at once brought him into notice. In the Tractarian Movement of 1835-45, which arose in the Established Church, and shook its foundations, Dr. Manning took a leading part, and at length was borne logically, as were so many others, into the fold of Catholicity. His admirable qualities of mind and heart were recognized at Rome, and promotion followed rapidly till he stood at the head of the Catholic Hierarchy in England.

Cardinal Manning was not only a Prelate. He was a statesman. He was full of human sympathy, the great Cardinal of the common people. Bravely devoted to the welfare of the masses, he did a vast deal to lessen the breach between the workingmen and the Christian religion. Through his personal and direct efforts the condition of thousands of the London wage-earners has been bettered, and next to Mr. Gladstone, the Cardinal was the most influential man in England. He died in 1892.

Melchisedec. Little is known of this famous personage. After the return of Abraham from an expedition against some of the neighboring princes, who had committed depredations on his territory, Melchisedec met and blessed him. The Scriptural account is in the following words: "But Melchisedec, the king of Salem, bringing forth bread and wine, for he was a priest of the Most High God, blessed him and said: Blessed be Abraham by the Most High God, who created heaven and earth; and he (Abraham) gave him tithes of all."

Methuselah is not known to have been remarkable for anything except his age, having completed nine hundred and sixty-nine years, the oldest of the human race.

Milton, JOHN, the greatest epic poet of England, was born in London, 1608. As a political writer, he has been much admired; but as a poet, he has been justly celebrated as a compeer of Homer and Virgil. His Paradise Lost is one of the great poems of modern times. Towards the close of his life he became blind; he suffered considerably from personal and political enemies, and finally died comparatively poor and forsaken by the world, A. D. 1674.

Montgomery, GENERAL, a native of Ireland, and a distinguished officer in the war of the Revolution. He fell in an attempt to storm the walls of Quebec. Few men have fallen in battle more regretted on both sides than General Montgomery. He had engaged in the American cause from the purest principles; he left the enjoyment of ease and the highest domestic happiness, in Ireland, to share the toils, the dangers, and the fortunes of a war undertaken to defend the rights of a community of which he was only an adopted member.

Moses, the great lawgiver of the Jews. In his infancy he was exposed on the banks of the Nile, in a small basket made of rushes; in this situation he was found by the daughter of Pharaoh, who saved his life, and adopted him as her own child. After having led the Israelites from the land of Egypt, and having given them the divine law at the foot of Mount Sinai, he died on Mount Nebo, at the age of one hundred and twenty years, after having taken a view of the promised land, B. C. 1447.

Newman, CARDINAL. John Henry Newman was born in London at the beginning of the last century. He studied with renown at Oxford, and having received his degree, took orders in the Established Church of England. At her altars he served with great power and success till his forty-fourth year, when the Tractarian Movement of 1835-45 bore him into the Catholic Church. He was contemporary with Cardinal Manning—both great, but great on different lines. Cardinal Manning was a born statesman, a leader of men, ready and foremost in every movement for real reform, in the fight for truth and right standing at the very van, and gathering helpers round him. Cardinal Newman was a leader, too, but in the realm of ideas and their expression. He shrank from the public, from personal contacts, but was the joy of thinkers and scholars.

Cardinal Newman was the author of many famous books, and some of the sweetest hymns in our language are from his saintly pen. He died in 1890.

These two great English Cardinals, Newman and Manning, made a deep impression upon the Church and upon their age.

Newton, SIR ISAAC, one of the most illustrious of natural philosophers and mathematicians that ever lived, was born at Woolstrope, in Lincolnshire, England. Having lost his father at an early period of his life, the utmost attention was bestowed on his education by his mother. He studied at Trinity College, Cambridge, and at the age of twenty-two discovered the method of fluxions, which he afterwards greatly improved. But his most important discovery was the principle of gravitation. He was led to the investigation of this principle by observing an apple fall from a tree; by inquiring the reason why it fell to the ground after leaving the stem, in preference to taking any other direction. He died in the eighty-fifth year of his age, A. D. 1727.

Nimrod, a great warrior, is the first king we read of in authentic history.

Noah, from whom the earth was a second time peopled, is considered by some as the Chronos of the Greeks. His eminent piety

procured for him and his family an exemption from the awful calamity of the Deluge. Having built the Ark, according to the Divine direction, he entered it, taking with him his wife, his three sons and their wives, together with the various animals of the earth, and thus, under the special care of God, survived the destruction of the world. He died three hundred and fifty years after the Deluge, at the advanced age of nine hundred and fifty years.

O'Connell, DANIEL, a great political genius and one of the most remarkable men in the history of the world, was born in the county of Kerry, Ireland, in the year 1775. He studied in his native county, and in France and England, and was called to the Irish bar in 1798. He delivered his first public speech against the Union in January, 1800, and, singular to relate, it contains the principles of his whole political career. O'Connell's life as a public man is the history of Ireland for over a third of a century. He found the Catholics of his native isle, and of all Great Britain, sunk in gloomy apathy, and degraded by odious penal enactments; and he raised them up by the unaided force of his wonderful genius. Catholic emancipation took place in 1829. From that time till his death, in 1847, O'Connell held a seat in the British Parliament. His life and his splendid abilities he devoted to the services of Ireland and the Catholic Church.

Orpheus, called the father of poetry, is said to have been the son of Apollo. The power of his music was such, as fiction reports, that at the strains of his lyre, the rivers were stayed in their course, the mountains were moved, and the ferocity of wild beasts subdued. He is said to have been one of the Argonauts, of which celebrated expedition he wrote a poetical account. This, however, is doubted. The poems that pass under his name are supposed to have been written by a later author. Orpheus flourished twelve hundred and eighty-four years before the Christian era.

Ossian, an ancient Irish bard. He is said to have lived in the third century, and to have been the son of Fingal. He wrote in Gaelic. His poems were recently published at Dublin, in six volumes.

Ovid, a distinguished Roman poet, who flourished during the reign of Augustus, and under a part of the reign of Tiberius. The most of his poems are extant; they are characterized by sweetness and elegance, though often debased by indelicate expressions.

Pindar, a Grecian lyric poet, was a native of Thebes. His compositions were universally admired, and his hymns were repeated in the temples at the celebration of the festivals; his odes, which have survived the wreck of time, are greatly admired for their grandeur of expression, magnificence of style, and harmony of numbers. Pindar died at the age of eighty-six, B. C. 435.

Pitt, WILLIAM, a distinguished English statesman and orator, was Earl of Chatham, and born in the year 1708. Being elected to Parliament at the age of twenty-seven, he was soon distinguished for his eloquence, and early enlisted in the ranks of the opposition. In 1756, he was appointed Secretary of State, but his continuance in office was of short duration. His popularity, however,

was with the mass of the nation, and he was recalled to the secretaryship in 1757. He deprecated, in the House of Lords, with all the power of his eloquence, measures relating to the American war. His constitution was at this time so enfeebled that, on one occasion, as he rose to speak he fell into a swoon, and died in a few days, in the seventieth year of his age. As an orator and statesman, he was, perhaps, unsurpassed in modern times; and the music and majesty of his voice, the gracefulness of his action, the power of his eye, carried conviction with his arguments. It is said that Walpole, the minister, though supported by a decided majority, never heard his voice in the House of Commons without being alarmed.

Plato, an eminent Greek philosopher, called the Divine, was for eight years the pupil of Socrates. He taught in the grove of Academus, near Athens, where he was attended by a crowd of noble and illustrious pupils. Among them was Aristotle. His works are numerous, and generally in the form of dialogues. The ancients, and even the learned of modern times, have admired and studied the writings of this great philosopher. They display great depth of thought, with elegance and harmony of expression. Among other truths, he maintains, by many powerful arguments, the immortality of the soul. He died in the eighty-first year of his age, B. C. 348.

Pliny, THE ELDER, was born at Verona, of a noble family. He is the earliest writer on natural history whose works are extant. To his public duties he attended through the day, but devoted himself to study during a portion of the night. His work on natural history was comprised in thirty-seven books. He is said to have written one hundred and sixty volumes of remarks and annotations on various authors, but these have not survived the wreck of time. His love of knowledge cost him his life. During an eruption of Vesuvius, he was induced to approach the mountain for the purpose of making his observations on this interesting phenomenon. While thus employed, he was overtaken by the burning lava and perished, A. D. 79.

Plutarch, an eminent biographer. His principal works are his Lives of Illustrious Men. Having travelled through Egypt and Greece in quest of knowledge, he returned to Rome, where with great reputation he conducted a school. He enjoyed the special favor of the Emperor Trajan, and after the death of his patron, he retired to his native place, Chœronea, where he died, A. D. 140.

Polybius, a learned historian, who wrote the history of the Greeks and Romans. He fought against the Romans in the war of Perseus, and being made prisoner, he was brought to Rome, where he was befriended by the younger Scipio. He was present at the siege of Carthage, and after the destruction of that city he retired to Megalopolis, where he died in his eighty-second year, B. C. 124.

Pope, ALEXANDER, an eminent English Catholic poet, was born at London, in 1688. At the age of twenty-three he published his Essay on Criticism, a production which evinces all the reflections of a more mature age. The Temple of Fame, Rape of the Lock, the Dunciad, and Essay on Man, are among his most celebrated pro-

ductions. His translation of Homer's Iliad is still read and universally admired. In person, Pope was diminutive and somewhat crooked. In disposition he was fretful, but his manners were easy, and his wit fascinating. He died in his native city, at the age of fifty-six years.

Pythagoras, a Greek philosopher, was born at Samos. He travelled through Egypt and other countries, and finally settled at Crotona, where his universal knowledge gained him many friends and admirers. The world is indebted to him for the demonstration of the forty-seventh proposition of the first book of Euclid, respecting the square of the hypothenus. The time and place of his death are unknown.

Raphael, the prince of painters, was born at Urbino, Italy, in 1483. By studying the best masters in painting, he soon rose to eminence, and merited the appellation of the Divine Raphael. He also excelled as an architect, and was employed in the building of St. Peter's Church, at Rome. By the general consent of mankind, he is acknowledged as the greatest of painters; he excelled particularly in beauty and grace. Raphael died at the early age of thirty-seven.

Rousseau, JOHN JAMES, was born at Geneva, in 1712. He was of a weakly constitution, but his mind was strong and active, and the early reading of Plutarch and Tacitus tended to expand his ideas, and to inspire him with courage. Though equally skeptical with Hume and Voltaire, yet he quarrelled with the former, who had been his protector in England, and incurred the displeasure of the latter, for maintaining the immoral tendency of the stage, although he himself had written for it. He died at his native place, Geneva, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. His works prove him to have been a man of transcendent genius, but at the same time exhibit the utmost eccentricity, joined with licentiousness and skepticism. His personal character is a puzzle to moralists. Though warm-hearted, he was mean, fickle, and vicious. Rousseau has been called the Diogenes of modern times.

Sallust, the famous Roman historian, was a man of depraved and licentious manners. Of his Roman history, the conspiracy of Catiline and the wars of Jugurtha are the only portions extant. He died in the fifty-first year of his age, B. C. 35.

Samson, one of the Judges of Israel, was endowed with extraordinary strength. On one occasion he slew one thousand Philistines with the jaw-bone of an ass. The secret of his strength, which lay in his hair, was at length discovered by his wife, Delilah, who treacherously cut off his locks while he was asleep, and thus rendered him powerless. In this state he was taken by his enemies, who deprived him of his sight, and retained him a prisoner. In the meantime his hair increased, and with it his strength also returned. On a certain occasion, as the Philistines were holding a festival in the temple of Dagon, Samson was brought in for their amusement; but by an effort of his strength, he pulled down the pillars supporting the edifice, and perished with three thousand of his enemies in the general ruin.

Sappho, a celebrated Greek poetess, and inventor of the Sapphic verse, was born in the island of Lesbos, about six hundred years before the Christian era. She was celebrated for her poetical talents and beauty. Her poems were much admired for their sublimity, harmony, sweetness, and elegance; but of all her productions only a few fragments are extant.

Seneca, Lucius, a celebrated moralist and philosopher, was born at Cordova, in Spain, a few years before the Christian era. He became early distinguished for his abilities, and acquired considerable eminence for his eloquence in pleading at the bar. He was entrusted with the education of Nero, and while the young Emperor was guided by the counsels of his illustrious preceptor, he governed with universal approbation. But at length, becoming impatient of the restraint imposed on his vicious inclinations, he pretended that Seneca had conspired with Piso against his life, and sent a message to inform him that he must die; permitting him at the same time to choose the manner of his death. The philosopher received the mandate with cheerfulness, and ordered the veins of his legs and arms to be opened; but as the blood flowed extremely slow, his life was at length terminated by warm vapor, in the seventy-second year of his age, A. D. 65.

Shakespeare, William, the greatest dramatic poet of all time, was born in England in the year 1564. He came to London at an early age, and first enlisted among the players, and became an actor on the stage. He, however, shortly afterwards applied himself to dramatical writing, and soon gained a universal reputation. Towards the close of his life he retired to his native place, where he died in the fifty-second year of his age, A. D. 1616. As a writer of plays, he has never been surpassed; he is admired for the beauty, elegance, and simplicity of his style. His writings, however, are here and there interspersed with blemishes and moral defects.

Sheridan, Richard Brinsley. This celebrated wit, dramatist, statesman, and orator, was born in the city of Dublin, Ireland, in 1751. At an early age, he married Miss Linley, a beautiful young lady; but he did not obtain her without some difficulty, being obliged to fight two duels with a Captain Matthews, on her account. On the conclusion of Sheridan's speech on the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, the whole assembly, members, peers, and strangers, in Westminster Hall, joined in a tumultuous burst of applause. A motion was immediately made to adjourn, in order that the members might recover from the effect of his overpowering eloquence. His comedies, The School for Scandal, The Rivals, and The Critic, place him at the head of British writers of comedy. Sheridan, unhappily, undermined his fine constitution by intemperance, and, in 1816, died at London in needy circumstances.

Socrates was a native of Athens. In early life he followed the profession of his father, who was a statuary. He was also a soldier for some time. But he is far more distinguished as a philosopher and moralist, than as a warrior. He was remarkable for the mildness of his disposition, and acquired that serenity of mind, and firmness of countenance, which the most alarming dangers could not destroy, nor the most sudden calamities alter. He in-

culcated the purest principles of morality, and supported the doctrine of the immortality of the soul. Being accused by his enemies on a false charge of corrupting the youth of Athens, he was condemned to death; accordingly, he drank the juice of the hemlock, and calmly expired, in the seventieth year of his age, B. C. 401.

Solon, the great Athenian legislator, and one of the wise men of Greece, was born at Salamis, and educated at Athens. Having been elected Archon, he reformed every department of the government. He instituted the Areop'agus, regulated the Prytaneum, and his laws continued to flourish for nearly four hundred years. He died in the eightieth year of his age, B. C. 558.

Solomon, the wisest of mankind, was the son of David, king of Israel. The early part of his life was distinguished for exemplary piety, but he afterwards fell even into idolatry. He married no less than one thousand wives, seven hundred of whom held the title of queen. It is believed that he repented before his death. The temple which he built at Jerusalem rendered his name memorable. He wrote the Books of Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and Canticles. He died in the fifty-eighth year of his age and fortieth of his reign, B. C. 975.

Sophocles, an eminent tragic poet of Greece, the contemporary and rival of Euripides, was born about 497 B. C. Towards the close of his life, being accused of insanity by his children, who wished to obtain his possessions, the poet composed and read his tragedy of Œdipus, and then asked his judges whether the author of such a performance could be insane. He was immediately acquitted, to the confusion of his ungrateful offspring. He died in his ninety-first year, of excessive joy, on hearing that he had obtained a poetical prize at the Olympic games.

Spenser, EDMUND, an eminent English poet, flourished during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, by whom he was employed for some time in public life. His most celebrated production is his Fairy Queen. He died at London in 1598.

Swift, JONATHAN, distinguished as a wit, poet, and prose writer, was born at Dublin, Ireland, in 1667. About the year 1694 he took orders as a minister in the Church of England, and soon became Dean of St. Patrick's, in Dublin. After the accession of Queen Anne, he became deeply engaged in political controversy, and wrote some able political works. He died in 1745. Among other works, he was the author of Gulliver's Travels and Tale of a Tub. Swift was eccentric in the extreme. He delighted to differ from all other men on those subjects in which all others agreed. Though married, he was never known to be in the company of his wife, except in the presence of a third person. Swift's character is hard to understand—in short, one of the puzzles of literary history.

Ta'citus, the celebrated Roman historian, was born some time in the first century of our era. He held various positions under the Emperors Vespasian, Titus, Domitian, and Nerva. He died in the early part of the second century, but the exact year is unknown. Tacitus is one of the greatest of historians.

Tennyson, ALFRED LORD. The most distinguished British poet of the latter half of the nineteenth century. He stands almost, if

not altogether, abreast with the master poets of the world. Among his works are The Idylls of the King, The Holy Grail, Locksley Hall, Maud, In Memoriam—classic productions, marked by pure, lofty sentiment, and the utmost felicity of expression, which will permanently enrich the English language. Queen Victoria raised him to the peerage, and justly so, for he was the literary star of her reign. He died in 1892.

Thales was born at Miletus in Ionia. He was distinguished for his high attainments in philosophy, geometry, and astronomy. He was the first who calculated the solar eclipse, and the founder of the Ionic sect of philosophy. He died at the age of ninety-six years, B. C. 548.

Theocritus, a pastoral poet, who flourished at Syracuse, B. C. 282. A few fragments of his poetical compositions, written in the Doric dialect, are extant, and admired for their beauty, elegance, and simplicity. He is said to have written several invectives against Hiero, king of Syracuse, by whose order he was put to death.

Varro, a learned Roman, who is said to have written no less than three hundred volumes; all of which are lost, except two fragments. He died at the age of eighty-eight years, B. C. 28.

Virgil, an illustrious Roman poet, was born in a village near Mantua, Italy, about seventy years before the Christian era. Having lost his farm in the distribution of the lands to the soldiers of Augustus, he repaired to Rome and procured the restoration of his property through the influence of Mecænas. His most celebrated writings are his Bucolics, Georgics, and his great epic poem, the Æneid. He enjoyed the particular friendship and patronage of Augustus. Virgil died at Brundusium, in the fifty-first year of his age, B. C. 19.

Voltaire, MARIE FRANCIS, an eminent French poet and writer, was born in the year 1694. In early life he evinced superior powers of mind; and his fondness for satire, directed against the government, caused his imprisonment in the Bastile, from which he was at length liberated through the influence of the Duke of Orleans. After this event he devoted himself more to the composition of poetry. His principal efforts were directed towards the drama; and his Alzire, Mahomet, and Merope place him among the first of the dramatic poets of France. He spent much of his time at the court of Frederick II, king of Prussia; but at length fixed his residence in a village on the borders of France. His life was that of a bad man. The boldness, downright blasphemy, and the awful extravagance of his writings often exposed him to danger, and compelled him at different times to retire to solitude. He died while on a visit to Paris, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. His last moments are said to have been attended with the utmost horror and dread at the reflection of the irreligious and atheistical tendency of his writings, which have been regarded as one of the agents in bringing about the appalling calamities which befell France in the wild and bloody times of the Revolution.

Washington, GEORGE. This illustrious general, patriot, and statesman, was born in the year 1732, in the county of Fairfax,

Virginia. He was educated under the care of a private tutor, and distinguished himself for his progress in mathematics and engineering. The principal events of his life have been already noticed. After the struggle, which procured the independence of America, he resigned his military command, and again retired to the tranquillity of private life. In 1789, he was called by the unanimous voice of his countrymen to fill the high office of President of the United States. Having filled that station a second term, or eight years in all, he declined the honor of being again elected, and returned to his peaceful residence at Mount Vernon, where he died after a few days' illness, on the 14th of December, 1799, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. The history of his country is the best eulogium of this great man; his most lasting monument, the love and admiration of the world. Washington never had any offspring. In his twenty-seventh year he married Mrs. Custis, a lady possessed of every accomplishment that contributes to domestic felicity. At his death, he directed that all his servants should be emancipated after Mrs. Washington's decease.

Wiseman, Cardinal Nicholas Patrick, was born in Spain, in 1802. His mother was Irish and his father English. He finished his studies at Rome, was ordained priest, and soon attracted attention by his extraordinary abilities. As a professor at the Roman University he delivered, in 1835, his famous Lectures on the Connection between Science and Revealed Religion. In 1850, he was created Cardinal, and appointed first Archbishop of Westminster; and from that to the date of his death, in 1865, the life of Cardinal Wiseman was wholly devoted to his high duties—religious toil and literary activity. His books and lectures cover a vast range of knowledge; and on everything which he handled he conferred beauty and distinction.

Xenophon, a celebrated general, historian, and philosopher of Greece. He served in the army of Cyrus, the Younger, and chiefly conducted the retreat of the Ten Thousand, after the battle of Cunaxa. After this event, he continued the history of Thucydides, wrote the life of Cyrus the Great, and collected the Memorabilia of Socrates. He died at Corinth, in the ninetieth year of his age, B. C. 350.

Zeno, the founder of the Stoic school of philosophy, was a native of Cyprus. The early part of his life was devoted to commercial pursuits; but he at length turned his attention towards the study of philosophy, which he afterwards taught at Athens for forty-eight years, and died at the age of ninety-eight, B. C. 264.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS, FROM THE CREATION OF ADAM TO THE YEAR 1909.

B. C.

4004. The Creation of Adam and Eve, according to the Hebrew text of the Scriptures.
3875. Cain murders Abel.
3017. Enoch translated to Heaven.
2348. Universal Deluge.
2247. The Building of the Tower of Babel; the Dispersion of Mankind, and the Confusion of Languages.
2217. Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and founded the Babylonish Monarchy; and Assur to have built Nineveh, and founded the Monarchy of Assyria.
2188. Menes (in Scripture, Misraim) founds the Monarchy of Egypt.
1996. The Birth of Abraham.
1897. Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed by fire from Heaven.
1896. Isaac born.
1836. Jacob and Esau born.
1823. Death of Abraham.
1716. Isaac dies.
1635. Joseph dies in Egypt.
1571. Moses born in Egypt.
1556. Cecrops founds the kingdom of Athens.
1546. Scamander founds the kingdom of Troy.
1520. Corinth built.
1493. Cadmus builds Thebes, and introduces Letters into Greece.
1491. Moses brings the Israelites out of Egypt.
1452. The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, written.
1451. The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua.
1434. Joshua dies.
1207. Gideon, Judge of Israel.
1193. The Trojan War begins.
1184. Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks.
1155. Samson born.
1099. Samuel delivers Israel.
1079. Saul, King of Israel.
1055. David, King of Israel, begins his reign.
1004. Dedication of Solomon's Temple.
980. Rehoboam and Jeroboam begin to reign over Israel.
955. Abijah, King of Judah, dies, and Asa succeeds him.

B. C.

914. Jehoshaphat succeeds his father, Asa; Aham, Ahaziah, and Jeneram, reign over Israel.
869. The City of Carthage founded by Dido.
752. The foundation of Rome, by Romulus.
724. Hezekiah, tenth King of Judah.
721. Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the Ten Tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the kingdom of Israel.
711. Sennacherib, King of Assyria, invades Judea.
708. Habakkuk prophesied.
696. Manasseh, sixteenth King of Judah.
658. Byzantium founded by Pausanias, King of Sparta.
627. The Forty Years of Hezekiah began.
610. Josiah slain.
606. Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.
601. End of the Assyrian Empire. Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
600. Jeremiah prophesied.
599. Birth of Cyrus the Great.
588. The Jewish Capital and Temple are burned to the ground.
572. Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.
551. Confucius, the Chinese Philosopher, born.
538. Babylon taken by Cyrus. End of the Babylonian Empire.
536. Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia. He puts an end to the Jewish Captivity, which had lasted seventy years.
534. Daniel prophesied.
529. Death of Cyrus the Great.
520. The Jews begin to build the second Temple, which is finished in four years.
508. The first Alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.
504. Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians.
490. The battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades defeats the Persians.
488. The first Tribunes of the People created at Rome.
486. Xerxes succeeds his father, Darius, in the kingdom of Persia.
485. Coriolanus banished from Rome.
480. The Spartans under Leonidas slain at Thermopylæ.
—— Naval Victory gained by the Greeks over the Persians, at Salamis.
476. Themistocles rebuilds Athens.
—— A great Eruption at Ætna.
456. Cincinnatus Dictator at Rome.
455. Commencement of the Seventy Prophetical Weeks of Daniel.
452. The two books of Chronicles, supposed to have been written at this time by Ezra.
431. The Peloponnesian War begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.
—— Malachi, the last of the Prophets.
422. Sanballat builds a Temple on Mount Gerizzim for Eleazer, his son-in-law.
418. Disturbances at Rome on account of the Agrarian Law.
409. Nehemiah dies.

B. C.

404. Malachi prophesies.
403. Lysander takes Athens. Government of the Thirty Tyrants.
401. The younger Cyrus defeated by his brother Artaxerxes, and killed.
—— Persecution and death of Socrates.
385. Rome taken by the Gauls, under Brennus.
356. Alexander the Great born at Pella, in Macedonia.
348. End of the Sacred War.
343. The War between the Romans and Samnites, which led to the Conquest of all Italy.
336. Philip murdered by Pausanias.
—— Alexander the Great destroys Thebes.
332. Alexander conquers Egypt, and takes Tyre.
330. Darius Codomanus killed. End of the Persian Empire.
328. Alexander passes into India, defeats Porus, founds several cities, and penetrates to the Ganges.
—— The voyage of Nearchus from the Indus to the Euphrates.
324. Alexander the Great dies at Babylon, at the age of thirty-three.
320. Ptolemy carries one hundred thousand Jews captives into Egypt.
275. The Astronomical Era of Dionysius of Alexandria.
283. The Library of Alexandria founded.
280. Pyrrhus invades Italy.
277. The translation of the Septuagint made by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus.
266. Silver money is coined at Rome for the first time
253. Manasseh chosen High-priest of the Jews.
241. End of the first Punic War.
235. The Temple of Janus shut the first time since the reign of Numa.
225. Great victory of the Romans over the Gauls.
219. Hannibal takes Saguntum.
218. The second Punic War begins.
206. Gold first coined at Rome.
203. The Carthaginians recall Hannibal to Africa.
196. The battle of Zama, and end of the second Punic War.
170. Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jerusalem.
167. End of the kingdom of Macedon.
166. Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of Judea.
149. The third Punic War begins.
146. Corinth taken by the Consul Mummius.
—— Antiochus besieges Jerusalem.
103. Jugurtha starved to death at Rome.
90. The War of the Allies against Romans.
82. Sylla perpetual Dictator. His horrible proscription.
80. Julius Cæsar makes his first campaign.
79. Cicero's first oration for Roscius.
72. Herod the Great is born.
63. Victories of Pompey. He takes Jerusalem, and restores Hyrcanus to the government of Judea.
62. Catiline's conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.
61. Pompey enters Rome in triumph.
59. The first Triumvirate, Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.

B. C.

55. Cæsar lands in Britain, and makes a short campaign.
54. Cæsar invades Britain a second time, and conquers part of it.
49. Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.
48. Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.
— The Alexandrian Library of four hundred thousand volumes burnt.
45. The Calendar reformed by Julius Cæsar, by introducing the Solar Year instead of the Lunar. The first Julian year began January 1, 45 B. C.
44. Julius Cæsar assassinated in the Senate-House, having killed one million one hundred and ninety-two thousand men.
33. Mauritania reduced to a Roman province.
32. War declared by the Senate against Antony and Cleopatra.
31. Battle of Actium, and end of the Roman commonwealth.
— Octavius, Emperor of Rome.
19. Temple of Jerusalem rebuilt by Herod.
10. The Temple of Janus shut by Augustus for a short time.
8. Augustus corrects an error of the Roman Calendar.
5. Augustus ordains a census of all the people in the Roman Empire.
4. JESUS CHRIST is born four years before the commencement of the Common era.

A. D.

9. The Roman Legions under Varus destroyed in Germany.
14. Tiberius, Emperor of Rome.
17. Twelve cities of Asia destroyed by an earthquake.
26. John the Baptist preaches in Judea the coming of the Messiah.
29. Jesus baptized in Jordan by John.
33. JESUS CHRIST crucified.
37. Caligula, Emperor of Rome.
39. St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
40. The conversion of St. Paul.
41. Claudius, Emperor of Rome.
— Herod persecutes the Christians, and imprisons St. Peter.
42. Sergius Paulus, pro-consul, converted by St. Paul.
44. The name of Christians first given to the Disciples of Christ at Antioch.
— St. Mark writes his Gospel.
— Herod is smitten by an angel, and dies.
50. London is founded by the Romans.
— St. Paul preaches in the Areopagus at Athens.
55. St. Luke writes his Gospel.
64. The first persecution of the Christians raised by Nero.
— Rome set on fire by Nero.
67. Massacre of the Jews by Florus, at Cæsarea Ptolemais and Alexandria.
— St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
— Josephus, the Jewish historian, Governor of Galilee.
70. Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.
78. A great pestilence at Rome, ten thousand dying in one day.

A. D.

79. Titus, Emperor of Rome.
— Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.
93. The Evangelist John banished to Patmos.
95. Dreadful persecution of the Christians at Rome and in the provinces.
— St. John writes his Apocalypse and his Gospel.
98. Trajan forbids the Christian assemblies.
108. St. Ignatius devoured by wild beasts at Rome.
115. The Jews in Cyrene murder two hundred thousand Greeks and Romans.
118. Persecution of the Christians renewed by Adrian, but afterwards suspended.
120. Adrian's wall built across Britain.
135. The Romans destroy five hundred and eighty thousand Jews in Judea.
137. Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem and names it Ælia Capitolina.
154. Justin, Martyr, publishes his Apology for the Christians.
168. A plague over the known world.
177. Persecution of the Christians at Lyons.
189. The Saracens defeat the Romans. This people first mentioned in history.
191. A great part of Rome destroyed by fire.
195. Byzantium besieged, surrenders to Severus.
202. The fifth persecution against the Christians, principally in Egypt.
217. Macrinus, Emperor of Rome.
222. The Roman Empire begins to decline.
225. Mathematicians allowed to teach publicly at Rome.
236. The sixth persecution of the Christians.
248. The secular games celebrated at Rome.
250. The seventh persecution of the Christians under Decius.
257. The eighth persecution of the Christians.
259. The Persians ravage Syria.
260. The Temple of Diana at Ephesus burnt.
267. The Heruli invade and ravage Greece.
274. Silk first brought from India.
276. Wines first made in Britain.
295. Alexandria, in Egypt, taken by Diocletian.
302. The tenth persecution of the Christians.
306. Constantine the Great, Emperor of Rome. He stops the persecution of the Christians.
315. Crucifixion abolished.
321. Observation of Sunday enjoined.
325. The first General Council at Nice, in which the doctrines of Arius were condemned.
330. Constantine removes the seat of empire to Constantinople.
337. Death of Constantine. The empire divided among his three sons—Constantine II, Constans, and Constantius.
341. The Gospel propagated in Ethiopia by Foumentius.
364. Julian, Emperor of Rome. He abjures Christianity, is elected Pontifex Maximus, and attempts fruitlessly to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem.
367. Gratian, Emperor of the West.

A. D.

378. The Goths advance to the gates of Constantinople.
379. Theodosius the Great, Emperor of the East.
381. Second General Council held at Constantinople.
383. The Huns overrun Mesopotamia; are defeated by the Goths.
410. Rome sacked and burnt by Alaric. Death of Alaric.
426. The Romans withdraw finally from Britain.
431. The third General Council held at Ephesus.
432. Gospel preached in Ireland by St. Patrick.
439. Genseric the Vandal invades and plunders Italy.
—— Carthage taken by the Vandals. Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa.
445. The Britons in vain solicit the Romans to assist them against the Picts and Scots.
451. The Saxons arrive in Britain, under Hengist and Horsa.
—— Fourth General Council at Chalcedon.
452. Foundation of the city of Venice.
472. Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, seen from Constantinople.
481. The kingdom of France begins.
490. Ireland, called the Isle of Saints, famous for its schools.
493. Odoacer put to death by Theodoric.
497. Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.
508. Theodoric the Great defeats Clovis in the battle of Arles, and then makes peace with him.
510. Clovis makes Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.
511. Death of Clovis. Division of this kingdom among his four sons.
516. The computation of time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the Monk.
519. Justin restores the Orthodox Bishops, and condemns the Eutychians.
529. The books of the Civil Law published by Justinian.
532. Great Insurrection at Constantinople quelled after prodigious slaughter.
543. An earthquake all over the world.
551. The manufacture of silk introduced into Europe.
553. Fifth General Council at Constantinople.
571. Birth of Mahomet, the false prophet.
580. The Latin tongue ceases to be spoken in Italy about this time.
581. The city of Paris destroyed by fire.
609. The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.
616. Jerusalem taken by the Persians.
622. Flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.
632. Death of Mahomet.
636. Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it four hundred and sixty-three years.
640. The Library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burnt.
641. Constantine, Emperor of the East for a few months, poisoned by his stepmother.
643. The Temple of Jerusalem converted into a Mahometan mosque.

A. D.

653. The Saracens take Rhodes, and destroy the Colossus.
658. The Saracens obtain peace of the Emperor Constans, and agree to pay a yearly tribute.
660. Organs first used in churches.
680. The sixth General Council of Constantinople.
685. The Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.
713. Spain conquered by the Saracens under Muce, the General of the Caliph Walid.
737. Death of Pelagius, who preserved the Christian monarchy in Asturia.
748. The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.
755. The Pope becomes a temporal sovereign.
762. Almanzar builds Bagdad, and makes it the seat of the Empire of the Caliphs.
767. The Turks ravage Asia Minor.
772. Charlemagne, sole monarch of France.
779. Charlemagne conquers Navarre and Sardinia.
787. The Danes first land in England.
—— The seventh General Council, or second of Nice.
788. Irene puts to death her son, Constantine, and is proclaimed sole Empress.
800. Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome.
816. The Eastern Empire ravaged by earthquakes, famine, conflagrations, etc.
827. Egbert unites the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy.
—— Beginning of the kingdom of England.
845. The Normans plunder Hamburg, and penetrate into Germany.
848. The Venetian fleet destroyed by the Saracens.
867. The Danes ravage England.
886. The University of Oxford founded by Alfred the Great.
887. The Normans besiege Paris.
890. Alfred the Great composes his Code of Laws, and divides England into counties, hundreds, and tithings.
891. The first land tax in England.
915. The University of Cambridge founded by Edward the Elder.
941. Arithmetic brought into Europe.
967. Antioch recovered from the Saracens by Nicephorus.
991. The Arabic numerals first introduced into Europe.
1000. Paper made of cotton rags, in use.
1013. The Danes, under Sweyn, get possession of England.
1025. Musical characters invented by the monk, Guido Aretino.
1040. Macbeth usurps the throne of Scotland by the murder of Duncan.
1055. The Turks take Bagdad, and overrun the Empire of the Caliphs.
1065. The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066. William the Conqueror, King of England.
1070. The Feudal Law introduced into England.
1079. Doomsday-book begun by William the Conqueror.
1080. Tower of London built.

A. D.

1087. William II (Rufus), King of England.
1095. The first Crusade to the Holy Land. Peter the Hermit.
1098. The Crusaders take Antioch.
1099. Jerusalem taken by Godfrey de Bouillon. The Knights of St. John instituted.
1100. Henry I (Beauclerc), King of England.
—— Writing on paper made of cotton rags common about this time.
1135. Stephen, King of England.
1141. Stephen, King of England, taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln, by the troops of Matilda.
1143. He recovers his kingdom.
1147. The second Crusade preached by St. Bernard.
1150. The study of the civil law revived at Bologna.
1151. The Canon Law is collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
1156. Moscow in Russia founded.
1157. The Bank of Venice instituted.
1163. London Bridge built the first time of stone.
1170. Paper made of linen rags.
1172. Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.
1187. The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.
1188. Third Crusade.
1190. Teutonic Order.
1196. Fourth Crusade sets out from Venice.
1200. Fifth Crusade.
1204. Latin Empire at Constantinople.
1208. London incorporated, obtains a charter for electing a Mayor and Magistrate.
1215. Magna Charta signed by King John.
1217. Sixth Crusade.
1233. Houses in London and other cities of England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
1248. Seventh Crusade.
1258. Bagdad taken by the Tartars. End of the Empire of the Saracens.
1261. Fall of the Latin Empire of Constantinople.
1270. Eighth and last Crusade.
—— Death of St. Louis, King of France.
1282. The Sicilian Vespers, when eight thousand French were massacred.
1283. The conquest of Wales by Edward I.
1290. University of Lisbon founded.
1291. Ptolemais taken by the Turks.
1293. From this year there is a regular succession of English Parliaments.
1294. Parliaments established in Paris.
1299. Interregnum in Scotland for eight years. Sir William Wallace nobly supports the liberty of his country, defeats the English at Stirling, and drives them out of the kingdom.
1302. The mariner's compass said to be invented at Naples.
1304. Wallace betrayed, delivered up, and put to death by Edward I.
1307. The establishment of the Swiss Republics.

A. D.

1307. Coal first used in England.
1308. The seat of the Popes transferred to Avignon for seventy years.
1314. The Scots under Robert Bruce defeat the English under Edward II, at Bannockburn.
1319. The Catholic University of Dublin founded.
1320. Gold first coined in Christendom.
1340. Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne.
—— Oil Painting invented by John Van Eyke.
—— Copper money first used in Scotland and Ireland.
1346. Battle of Cressy won by Edward III and the Black Prince, over the French.
1350. The Order of the Garter instituted by Edward III.
1351. Coals first brought to London.
1352. The Turks first enter Europe.
1356. The battle of Poictiers, in which John II, King of France, is taken prisoner, and afterwards brought to London.
1362. Law pleadings in England changed from French to English.
1365. Universities of Vienna and Geneva founded.
1381. Peace between Venice and Genoa.
—— Bills of exchange first used in England.
1383. Cannon first used by the English in the defence of Calais.
1391. Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
1394. The Jews banished from France by Charles VI.
1405. The Canary Islands discovered.
1412. Algebra brought from Arabia into Europe.
—— The University of St. Andrew's, Scotland, founded.
1415. John Huss condemned by the Council of Constance for heresy and burnt.
1420. The Island of Madeira discovered by the Portuguese.
1425. The Court of Sessions, in Scotland, instituted by James I.
1428. Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, compels the English to raise the siege of that town.
1436. Paris recovered by the French from the English.
1439. Reunion of the Greek and Latin churches.
1440. Invention of the art of printing, by John Guttenberg, at Strasburg.
1446. Great inundation of the sea in Holland.
1453. Constantinople taken by the Turks.
—— End of English rule in France.
1459 The art of engraving on copper invented.
1460. Battle of Wakefield, in which the Duke of York is killed.
1474. The Cape Verde Islands discovered by the Portuguese.
1479. Ferdinand and Isabella unite the kingdoms of Aragon and Castile.
1487. The Cape of Good Hope discovered by the Portuguese.
1489. Maps and sea charts first brought to England.
1492. America discovered by the great Christopher Columbus.
1497. The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope, and sail to India.
—— Sebastian Cabot explores a portion of the Atlantic coast of North America.
1500. Brazil discovered by V. Y. Pinzon.
1507. Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.

A. D.

1514. Cannon bullets of stone still in use.
1517. The Protestant Reformation in Germany begun by Luther.
1521. Cortes completes the conquest of Mexico.
1522. The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.
1534. The Protestant Reformation in England.
1539. The first English Protestant edition of the Bible authorized; the present translation finished 1611.
—— About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
—— Six hundred and forty-five religious monasteries suppressed in England and Wales.
1543. Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
1545. The Great Council of Trent opens, and continues, with various interruptions, for eighteen years.
1552. The Book of Common Prayer established in England by act of Parliament.
1553. Lady Jane Grey beheaded.
1560. Beginning of the civil wars in France.
—— The Protestant Reformation completed in Scotland by John Knox.
1561. Mary, Queen of Scots, arrives in Scotland from France.
1563. Knives first used in England.
1568. Mary, Queen of Scots, flees to England for protection.
1569. The Earl of Murray, regent of Scotland, assassinated by Hamilton.
1572. The massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24.
1574. Socinus propagates his opinions.
—— Don Sebastian, King of Portugal, invades Africa.
1576. The League in France formed against the Protestants.
1579. Commencement of the Republic of Holland, by the union of Utrecht.
1580. The world circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.
1582. The new style introduced into Italy by Pope Gregory XIII, the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
1584. Virginia discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh.
1588. Manufacture of paper introduced into England.
1589. Coaches first introduced into England.
1591. The Protestant University of Dublin established.
1592. Presbyterian church government established in Scotland.
1594. The Bank of England incorporated.
1597. Watches first brought into England from Germany.
1600. The English East India Company established.
1602. Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1605. The Gunpowder Plot discovered.
1607. Settlement of Jamestown, Virginia.
1608. Galileo discovers the moons of Jupiter.
—— Arminius propagates his opinions.
—— Quebec founded by Champlain.
1610. Hudson's Bay discovered.
1614. Logarithms invented by Napier.
—— New York settled.
1619. Discovery of the circulation of the blood, by Dr. Harvey.

A. D.

1620. The broad silk manufacture, from raw silk, introduced into England.
—— Copper money first introduced into England.
—— Settlement of Plymouth, Massachusetts.
1623. New Hampshire settled.
1624. New Jersey settled.
1625. The Island of Barbadoes the first English settlement in the West Indies.
1627. Delaware settled.
1633. Connecticut settled.
1634. Maryland settled.
1636. Rhode Island settled.
1639. The first printing-press established in the American colonies.
1642. Beginning of the civil war in England.
1643. Archbishop Laud condemned by the Commons, and beheaded.
1649. Fathers Brébeuf, Lallement, and Garnier, S. J., killed by the Indians.
—— Commonwealth of England begins.
1650. North and South Carolina settled.
1651. The Quakers first appear in England.
1652. The Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope established.
1653. Father Le Moyne, S. J., discovers the Onondaga Salt Springs, New York.
—— The first war between the English and Dutch.
1654. End of the commonwealth of England.
—— The English, under Admiral Penn, take possession of Jamaica.
1660. Charles II, King of Great Britain.
1662. The Royal Society instituted in England.
1663. Charter of Carolina, and a colony settled soon after
—— The French Academy of Inscriptions instituted.
1665. Great plague in London.
1666. Tea first used in England.
—— Great fire in London.
—— The Academy of Sciences instituted in France.
1673. Father Marquette, S. J., discovers the Mississippi.
1678. The habeas corpus act passed in England.
1681. Pennsylvania settled.
1685. Duke of Monmouth beheaded.
1686. The Newtonian philosophy first published in England.
1688. Revolution in Great Britain. King James II abdicates the throne, December 23.
1689. Episcopacy abolished in Scotland by King William.
1701. Yale College, Connecticut, founded.
1702. The English and Dutch destroy the French fleet at Vigo.
—— The French send colonies to the Mississippi.
1703. Gibraltar taken by Admiral Rooke, July 24.
1704. Peter the Great founds St. Petersburg.
—— First newspaper published in America at Boston.
1707. Union between England and Scotland.
1726. Great earthquake at Palermo, August 21.
1727. Inoculation first tried with success on criminals.

A. D.

1732. Washington born, February 22.
1733. Georgia settled.
1735. Birth of Archbishop Carroll.
1744. Commodore Anson completes his voyage round the world.
1745. Louisburg and Cape Breton taken by the British troops, June 6.
—— The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, July.
1750. Academy of Sciences founded at Stockholm.
1752. New Style introduced into Britain, September 3, reckoned 14.
1754. Great eruption at Ætna.
—— Great earthquake at Constantinople and Cairo, September 2.
1755. Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, November 1.
—— Defeat of Braddock.
1756. War declared between Great Britain and France, May 18.
1759. General Wolfe takes Quebec, September 17.
1760. Montreal and all Canada taken by the British.
1762. American Philosophical Society established at Philadelphia.
1765. Stamp Act passed.
1775. Battle of Lexington, April 19.
—— Battle of Bunker's Hill, in North America, June 17.
1776. Father Serra, O. S. F., founds the city of San Francisco.
—— The Americans declare their independence, July 4.
—— Battle of Long Island, August 27.
—— New York taken, in September.
—— Battle of Trenton, December 25.
1777. Battle of Brandywine, September 11.
—— Philadelphia taken, September 26.
—— Surrender of the British army under Burgoyne, at Saratoga, in the State of New York, October 17.
1780 Treachery of Arnold, September 22.
1781. Battle of Cowpens, January.
—— Battle of Guilford, March 15.
—— Battle of Eutaw Springs, September 8.
—— Surrender of the British army under Cornwallis, to the Americans and French at Yorktown, in Virginia, October 19.
1782. Preliminary articles of peace, between Great Britain and the United States, signed at Paris, November 30.
—— First English Bible printed in America at Philadelphia.
1788. Constitution of the United States adopted.
1789. Dr. Carroll appointed Bishop of the United States.
—— Georgetown College, District of Columbia, founded.
—— George Washington, first President of the United States, April.
1791. Vermont became a State.
—— First Sunday-school in the United States commenced at Philadelphia.
—— Seminary of St. Sulpice, Baltimore, founded.
—— Methodist Missionary Society instituted in England.
1792. Kentucky became a State.
—— Baptist Missionary Society formed in England.

A. D.

1793. The first priest (Father Badin) ordained in the United States.
—— Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette beheaded.
1795. The Cape of Good Hope taken by the British, September 16.
—— Prince Gallitzin, the second priest ordained in the United States.
1797. John Adams, President of the United States, March 4.
1798. Ireland in open rebellion, May, June, etc.
—— Admiral Nelson destroys the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1.
1799. George Washington dies, December 14.
—— London Religious Tract Society.
1800. The first Bishop (Leonard Neale) consecrated in the United States.
—— Union of Britain and Ireland.
1801. First meeting of the Imperial Parliament of Britain and Ireland, January.
—— Thomas Jefferson, President of the United States, March 4.
1805. Lord Nelson defeats the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar, takes or destroys nineteen ships of the line, and is killed in the battle, October 21.
—— War between England and Spain.
1806. The British Parliament vote the abolition of the slave trade, June 10.
1808. Abolition of the slave trade in the United States of America, January 1.
—— Dr. Carroll became Archbishop.
1809. Mount St. Mary's College, Emmitsburg, founded.
1810. American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions formed; incorporated in 1812.
—— Population of the United States, 7,239,903.
1811. Two hundred buildings and large quantities of goods burnt in Newburyport, Mass.
—— An unusually large comet appeared, September 1.
1812. War against Great Britain declared by the United States, June 18.
—— General Hull and his army taken prisoners in Canada, August 16.
—— The French army enter Moscow, September 14.
—— British frigate Guerriere captured, August 29.
—— do. do. Macedonian captured, October 26.
—— do. do. Java captured, December 29.
1813. Commodore Perry captures the British squadron, on Lake Erie, September 10.
1814. Napoleon Bonaparte dethroned, April 4, and banished to the island of Elba, for which he sailed, April 28.
—— City of Washington taken by the British, August 24.
—— British squadron on Lake Champlain captured by Commodore McDonough, September 11.
—— Pensacola taken by General Jackson, November 7.
—— Treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain signed at Ghent, December 24.
—— The British repulsed at New Orleans, December 28.
1815. Death of Archbishop Carroll.

A. D.

1815. The British completely defeated, and General Packenham slain at New Orleans, January 8.
—— United States frigate President taken by a British squadron, January 15.
—— Peace between Great Britain and the United States ratified, February 24.
—— American Education Society instituted at Boston.
—— Battle of Waterloo.
1816. Deaf and Dumb, Society for the instruction of, instituted at Hartford, Connecticut, June 24.
—— Indiana admitted into the Union as a State.
1817. United States Bank opened for business at Philadelphia, January 1.
—— American Colonization Society for free blacks organized January 1.
—— James Monroe, President of the United States, March 4.
—— Mississippi admitted into the Union as a State, December 11.
1818. Illinois admitted into the Union as a State, December 4.
—— Commercial treaties concluded between the United States on the one part, and Great Britain and Sweden on the other.
1819. A treaty for the cession of Florida to the United States signed at Washington, February 23.
—— First steamship sailed for Europe, May.
—— Alabama admitted into the Union as a State, December.
1820. George III, King of England, dies, January 29.
—— George IV succeeds to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland.
—— Maine admitted into the Union as a State.
—— The American Colonization Society sent out their first colonists to Liberia.
—— Population of the United States, 9,625,734.
1821. Missouri admitted into the Union as a State.
—— Napoleon Bonaparte dies at St. Helena, May 5, aged fifty-two.
—— Elias Boudinot, president of the American Bible Society, dies.
1822. Columbia College established.
—— Massacre of Greeks at Scio.
1824. The Marquis de la Fayette visited the United States.
—— American Sunday-School Union instituted at Philadelphia.
1825. John Quincy Adams, President of the United States, March 4.
—— American Tract Society instituted at New York.
1826. The ex-Presidents John Adams and Thomas Jefferson died July 4.
1829. St. Louis University founded.
—— Andrew Jackson, President of the United States, March 4.
1830. An act passed by Congress, to remove the Indians residing in any of the States or Territories, to the west of the Mississippi.
—— Fifth census of the United States taken. Number of the population, 12,850,240.

A. D.

1832. Death of Charles Carroll of Carrollton.
—— George IV, King of England, dies, June 26.
—— William IV succeeds him.
1836. Formation of the Republic of Texas.
1837. Martin Van Buren inaugurated, March 4.
1841. William Henry Harrison inaugurated, March 4, and dies, April 4. Vice-President, John Tyler, inaugurated in his place.
—— St. John's College, Fordham, New York, founded by Bishop Hughes.
1842. University of Notre Dame, Indiana, founded by Father Sorin, C. S. C.
1845. James K. Polk inaugurated.
—— General Jackson dies, June 8.
1846. War between the United States and Mexico declared, April.
—— General Taylor gains the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma over the Mexicans, May 8 and 9.
—— Matamoras taken, May 15.
—— Death of Pope Gregory XVI. Election of Pius IX, June.
—— Storming and capture of Monterey, September 21.
1847. Battle of Buena Vista, in which Santa Anna, with twenty-two thousand men, is defeated by General Taylor, with five thousand, February 23.
—— Vera Cruz surrendered to General Scott, March 29.
—— The Mexicans defeated at Cerro Gordo by General Scott, April 18.
—— Battles of Contreras and Cherubusco; Mexicans again defeated, August 20.
—— Storming of Chapultepec, September 12.
—— City of Mexico taken by General Scott, September 14.
—— Ex-President John Quincy Adams died at the capitol at Washington, February 23.
—— The Irish Famine.
—— Death of Daniel O'Connell.
1848. Louis Philippe abdicates in favor of the Count of Paris, and escapes to England, February 24.
—— The regal government abolished and republic proclaimed.
—— Insurrection in Vienna—the Emperor retires, with his court, to Innspruck, March.
—— Treaty of peace between the United States and Mexico signed at Guadaloupe, November.
—— General Taylor elected President of the United States, and Mr. Fillmore Vice-President, November.
—— Count Rossi, the Pope's minister, assassinated on the steps of Senate Chamber, November 15.
—— The flight of the Pope from Rome, and escape to Gaeta, November 24.
1849. A republic proclaimed at Rome, February.
—— Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, declares war against Austria, and is defeated by Radetski, March.
—— General Taylor inaugurated President of the United States, March 4.
—— Rome taken by the French—the republic abolished, and the authority of the Pope reëstablished, July 2.

A. D.

1849. Görgei surrenders to the Russians at Villagos. End of the Hungarian insurrection, August 11.
1850. Death of John C. Calhoun in Washington, March 31.
—— Death of President Taylor at the presidential mansion, Washington, July 9.
1851. Manhattan College, New York, founded.
—— Lopez's second invasion of Cuba—is captured and executed, May 19.
—— *Coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon—end of the French Republic.
1852. General Pierce elected President of the United States, November.
—— Death of Henry Clay, June 28.
—— Death of Daniel Webster, October 24.
—— Laval University, Quebec, founded.
1853. President Pierce inaugurated, March 4.
—— Mr. King, Vice-President, dies, April 18.
—— The World's Fair opened in the Crystal Palace, New York, July 14.
1854. Treaty of Commerce concluded between the United States and Japan by Commodore Perry, March.
—— Passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill, May.
—— War between Russia and Turkey—England and France form an alliance, and declare war against Russia, May.
1855. Troubles in Kansas—Topeka Convention.
1856. President Pierce's proclamation on the state of affairs in Kansas, February.
—— James Buchanan elected President of the United States, and John C. Breckinridge, Vice-President, November.
1857. President Buchanan inaugurated.
—— Franco-English expedition to China.
1858. Franco-Spanish expedition to Cochin-China.
—— Cornerstone of St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York, laid.
1859. Italian war.
—— Battle of Magenta.
—— Battle of Solferino.
1860. Italian revolution.
—— Victor Emmanuel proclaimed King of Italy.
—— Battle of Castelfidardo.
—— Bombardment of Ancona.
—— Capture of Gaeta.
—— Capture of Peking by the French and English.
—— Abraham Lincoln elected President of the United States.
—— The Southern States secede.
1861. Civil War in the United States.
—— French, English, and Spanish joint expedition against Mexico.
—— Attack on Fort Sumter, April 12.
—— Battle of Great Bethel.
—— Battle of Manassas.
1862. Surrender of Fort Donelson.
—— Battles of Shiloh.
—— Capture of New Orleans.
—— Siege of Yorktown.
—— Battle of Seven Pines.

A. D.	
1862.	Battle of Beaver's Dam.
——	Battle of Gaines' Mill.
——	Battle of Savage Station.
——	Battle of Frazier's Farm.
——	Battle of Malvern Hill.
——	Battle of Ball's Bluff.
——	Second battle of Manassas.
——	Battle of Antietam.
——	Battle of Fredericksburg.
——	Battle of Murfreesboro.
1863.	Battle of Chancellorsville.
——	Battle of Gettysburg.
——	Surrender of Vicksburg and Port Hudson.
——	The French enter the city of Mexico.
——	The Mexican notables vote for an empire.
——	War in Schleswig-Holstein.
1864.	Maximilian, of Austria, Emperor of Mexico.
——	Siege of Petersburg; advance on Richmond.
——	General Sherman crosses the State of Georgia.
——	Capture of Atlanta and Savannah.
——	Reëlection of President Lincoln.
——	Evacuation of Charleston.
1865.	Battle of Five Forks.
——	Surrender of General Lee.
——	End of the civil war.
——	Abolition of Slavery.
——	Assassination of President Lincoln.
——	Vice-President Andrew Johnson succeeds Lincoln.
1866.	War between Prussia and Italy and Austria.
——	Battle of Custozza.
——	Naval battle off Ancona.
——	Battle of Sadowa.
1867.	Overthrow of the Mexican Empire.
——	Capture and execution of the Emperor Maximilian.
1869.	General Council of the Vatican at Rome.
——	Ulysses S. Grant becomes President of the United States.
1870.	Franco-Prussian war begins.
——	Battle of Sedan, and surrender of Napoleon III.
——	Siege of Paris.
——	The Italian troops enter Rome.
1871.	End of the Franco-Prussian war.
——	Thiers President of the French Republic.
——	The German Empire reëstablished.
1872.	General Grant reëlected to the Presidency.
1873.	Marshal MacMahon, President of the French Republic.
1875.	Archbishop McCloskey, of New York, created Cardinal.
1876.	Centennial year of American Independence.
——	Great International Exhibition at Philadelphia.
1877.	Rutherford B. Hayes, President of the United States.
——	Russia declares war against Turkey.
——	Siege and capture of Plevna.
1878.	End of the Turco-Russian conflict.
——	Death of Pius IX, and election of Leo XIII.
1879.	Jules Grévy, President of France.

A. D.

1879. St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York, dedicated to Divine worship.
—— Famine in Ireland.
1880. Cologne Cathedral, Germany, completed.
—— James A. Garfield elected President of the United States.
—— Population of the United States, 50,152,866.
1881. President Garfield shot, Chester A. Arthur succeeding.
—— Assassination of Alexander II, Russia, Alexander III succeeding.
1882. Battle of Tel-el-Kebir.
—— Death of Darwin.
1883. Civil Service Bill passed.
—— Coronation of Alexander III at Moscow.
—— Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria, and Italy) formed.
1884. Grover Cleveland elected President.
1885. Death of Alphonso XII, of Spain.
—— Creation of the Congo Free State.
—— Death of General Grant.
1886. Gladstone introduces Home Rule Bill.
—— Archbishop Gibbons made Cardinal.
—— Charleston, South Carolina, desolated by an earthquake.
1887. Sadi Carnot elected President of France.
—— Stanley's Expedition for relief of Emin Bey.
1888. Benjamin Harrison elected President.
—— Death of William I, Emperor of Germany; death of Emperor Frederick, William II succeeding.
1889. North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington Territories become States.
—— International Exposition at Paris.
—— Destruction of Johnstown, Pa., by bursting of a dam.
1890. Idaho and Wyoming Territories become States.
—— Population of United States, 62,903,318.
—— McKinley Tariff Bill passed.
—— Death of Cardinal Newman.
—— Bismarck resigns Chancellorship, General Caprivi succeeding.
1891. Renewal of Dreibund, or Triple Alliance.
—— Death of Parnell.
—— Famine in Russia.
1892. Death of Cardinal Manning.
—— Chili apologizes to United States.
—— Death of Tennyson.
—— Italy resumes diplomatic relations with United States.
1893. Archbishop Satolli made Papal Legate to United States.
—— Columbian Exposition at Chicago.
—— Royalty overthrown in Hawaii.
—— Ex-President Hayes, James G. Blaine, Francis Parkman, John Tyndall, and the composer Gounod died.
1894. Earthquake at Kuchan, Persia, killed 12,000 persons.
—— One in Venezuela killed 10,000.
—— Louis Kossuth died. President Carnot, of France, assassinated. Oliver Wendell Holmes died.
—— July 4, republic proclaimed in Hawaii.
—— July 27, war begun between Japan and China.

A. D.

1894. Massacre of Christians by Turks in Kurdistan.
1895. February 20, Cuban revolution begun.
—— Sir Henry Rawlinson, Thomas H. Huxley, Louis Pasteur, and the younger Dumas died.
—— May 8, treaty of peace between Japan and China.
—— Harlem and Baltic canals opened.
—— September 18, opening of Cotton States Exposition at Atlanta, Ga.
1896. January 1, the Jameson raid.
—— January 4, Utah becomes a State.
—— Madagascar annexed to France.
—— March 2, battle of Adua in Abyssinia.
—— Shah of Persia assassinated.
—— Harriet Beecher Stowe died.
—— Mgr. Satolli succeeded by Mgr. Martinelli.
1897. Other massacres of Christians in Armenia.
—— The city of Greater New York formed.
—— War between Turkey and Greece.
—— Expositions at Nashville and Brussels.
—— Venezuela boundary treaty.
—— July 24, Dingley Tariff Law.
—— October 29, Henry George died.
1898. February 15, the Maine destroyed in Havana harbor.
—— April 19, war declared by United States against Spain.
—— May 1, battle of Manila.
—— July 1 and 2, battles of San Juan and El Caney.
—— July 3, Spanish fleet destroyed off Santiago.
—— August 12, Hawaiian Islands annexed.
—— August 13, end of war with Spain.
—— W. E. Gladstone and Prince Bismarck died; the Empress of Austria assassinated.
1899. January 1, Cuba under protection of United States.
—— February 4, the Filipino revolt begun.
—— February 10, treaty of peace with Spain signed.
—— February 16, President Faure, of France, died.
—— May 18, Peace Conference at The Hague.
—— September 10, the Boer War begun.
1900. Great World's Fair in Paris.
—— Jubilee year in Rome.
—— Anti-foreign outbreak in China.
—— England annexed the Boer Republics.
—— June 30, great shipping fire at Hoboken; fully 200 lives lost.
—— September 8, Galveston destroyed, and about 7,000 lives lost, by a tornado.
—— July 29, King Humbert, of Italy, assassinated.
—— John Ruskin, General Joubert, and John Sherman died.
1901. January 22, Queen Victoria died.
—— Cuban Constitutional Convention acknowledges suzerainty of United States.
—— September 6, President McKinley shot at Buffalo by an anarchist. He died on the 14th.
—— November 14, Vice-President Roosevelt assumed office of President.

A. D.

1902. February 17, labor riots at Barcelona.
—— May, destruction of St. Pierre by eruption of Mont Pelee.
—— May 6, death of Rear-Admiral William T. Sampson.
—— June 19, Lord Acton died.
—— September 30, Archbishop Falconio appointed Apostolic Delegate for the United States.
1903. January 5, Señor Práxedes Mateo Sagasta died.
—— February 9, death of Charles Gavan Duffy.
—— March 24, M. Curie communicates to French Academy of Sciences the properties of radium.
—— June 10, murder of King and Queen of Servia.
—— June 19, death of Cardinal Vaughan.
—— July 20, Pope Leo XIII dies.
—— August 10, Pope Pius X crowned.
—— December 8, death of Herbert Spencer.
—— December, Catholic University of Ottawa destroyed by fire.
—— December 29, Rev. Dr. Francis Bourne enthroned as Archbishop of Westminster.
—— December 30, disaster at the Iroquois Theatre, Chicago.
1904. April 13, sinking of the Petropavlovsk.
—— July 14, death of ex-President Kruger.
—— August 10, defeat of Russian fleet at Port Arthur.
—— November 8, President Roosevelt elected.
1905. July, death of Hon. John Hay.
—— October 13, sudden death of Henry Irving.
1906. April 4, first election for Russian Duma, at St. Petersburg.
—— April 18, destructive earthquake in San Francisco, Cal.
—— April 27, statue of Benjamin Franklin unveiled at Paris.
—— May 31, death of Michael Davitt.
—— September 8, Father Francis H. Wernz elected General of the Society of Jesus.
—— December 24, midnight mass suppressed in Paris.
1907. April, earthquakes destroy two towns in Mexico.
—— April 26, President Roosevelt opens Jamestown Exposition.
—— August, death of Augustus Saint Gaudens.
—— October, Karatagh, Bokhara, destroyed by an earthquake.
—— December 16, departure of the Atlantic fleet on a world cruise.
—— December 17, death of the Rt. Hon. William Thompson, Baron Kelvin.
1908. May, Governors of the States meet at the White House, Washington, D. C.
—— June 24, death of Grover Cleveland.
—— July 19, commencement of the celebration of the Quebec Tercentenary.
—— August, Congo Free State transferred to Belgian government.
—— September 11, Eucharistic Congress begins its session in London.
—— September 21, International Tuberculosis Congress met at Washington, D. C.
—— December 28, Messina and Reggio destroyed by earthquakes. Casualties from 125,000 to 200,000.
1909. March 4, inauguration of President Taft.

APPENDIX A

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, *July 4th*, 1776.

The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among them, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute depotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation, till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large, for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops amongst us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and en-

larging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our migration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war; in peace, friends.

WE, therefore, the representatives of THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do.

And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

(Signed) JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire
JOSIAH BARTLETT
WILLIAM WHIPPLE
MATTHEW THORNTON

Massachusetts Bay
SAMUEL ADAMS
JOHN ADAMS
ROBERT TREAT PAYNE
ELBRIDGE GERRY

Rhode Island, &c.
STEPHEN HOPKINS
WILLIAM ELLERY

Connecticut
ROGER SHERMAN
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON
WILLIAM WILLIAMS
OLIVER WOLCOTT

New York
WILLIAM FLOYD
PHILIP LIVINGSTON
FRANCIS LEWIS
LEWIS MORRIS

New Jersey
RICHARD STOCKTON
JOHN WITHERSPOON
FRANCIS HOPKINSON
JOHN HART
ABRAHAM CLARKE

Pennsylvania
ROBERT MORRIS
BENJAMIN RUSH
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
JOHN MORTON
GEORGE CLYMER
JAMES SMITH
GEORGE TAYLOR
JAMES WILSON
GEORGE ROSS

Delaware
CÆSAR RODNEY
GEORGE READ
THOMAS McKEAN

Maryland
SAMUEL CHASE
WILLIAM PACA
THOMAS STONE
CHARLES CARROLL
of Carrollton

Virginia
GEORGE WYTHE
RICHARD HENRY LEE
THOMAS JEFFERSON
BENJAMIN HARRISON
THOMAS NELSON, Jr.
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE
CARTER BRAXTON

North Carolina
WILLIAM HOOPER
JOSEPH HEWES
JOHN PENN

South Carolina
EDWARD RUTLEDGE
THOMAS HEYWARD, Jr.
THOMAS LYNCH, Jr.
ARTHUR MIDDLETON

Georgia
BURTON GWINNETT
LYMAN HALL
GEORGE WALTON

APPENDIX B

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

THE LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

ARTICLE I.—SECTION I

All legislative powers herein granted, shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II

1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative, and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III

1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro-tempore, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment, in cases of impeachment, shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law.

SECTION IV

1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V

1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House, on any question, shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI

1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to or returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII

1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and, if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill, shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return; in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment), shall be presented to the

President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII

The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies, throughout the United States:

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and to fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court; to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

10. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

11. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

12. To provide and maintain a navy;

13. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

14. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

15. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

16. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased, by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings; and,

17. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or office thereof.

SECTION IX

1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law, shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States, and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION X

1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque or reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports shall be for the treasury of the United States, and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

ARTICLE II—SECTION I

1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature

thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. *[The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then, from the five highest on the list, the said House shall, in like manner, choose the President. But, in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the Vice-President.

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

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*This clause has been annulled and superseded by the *Twelfth Amendment*, on page 714.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

9. "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION II

1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III

1. He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed; and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV

1. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

ARTICLE III—SECTION I

1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during

good behavior; and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II

1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States; and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed in any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III

1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

ARTICLE IV—SECTION I

1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II

1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from

which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor; but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III

1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV

1. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature can not be convened), against domestic violence.

POWERS OF AMENDMENT

ARTICLE V

1. The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution; or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

PUBLIC DEBT, SUPREMACY OF THE CONSTITUTION, OATH OF OFFICE, RELIGIOUS TEST

ARTICLE VI

1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby; anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE VII

1. The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

New Hampshire
JOHN LANGDON
NICHOLAS GILMAN

Massachusetts
NATHANIEL GORHAM
RUFUS KING

Connecticut
WM. SAMUEL JOHNSON
ROGER SHERMAN

New York
ALEXANDER HAMILTON

New Jersey
WM. LIVINGSTON
DAVID BREARLY
WM. PATERSON
JONATHAN DAYTON

Pennsylvania
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
THOMAS MIFFLIN
ROBERT MORRIS
GEORGE CLYMER
THOMAS FITZSIMONS
JARED INGERSOLL
JAMES WILSON
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

Delaware
GEORGE READ
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.
JOHN DICKINSON
RICHARD BASSETT
JACOB BROOM

Maryland
JAMES McHENRY
DANIEL, of St. Thomas Jenifer
DANIEL CARROLL

Virginia
JOHN BLAIR
JAMES MADISON, JR.

North Carolina
WM. BLOUNT
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT
HUGH WILLIAMSON

South Carolina
JOHN RUTLEDGE
C. COTESWORTH PINCKNEY
CHARLES PINCKNEY
PIERCE BUTLER

Georgia
WILLIAM FEW
ABRAHAM BALDWIN

Attest:
WM. JACKSON,
Secretary.*

*Rhode Island did not accept the Constitution until May, 1790.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ART. III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrant shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb, nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ART. VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ART. VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ART. XI. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

METHOD OF ELECTING A PRESIDENT*

ART. XII. §1. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But, in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of death or other constitutional disability of the President.

2. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

3. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President, shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

SLAVERY AND CIVIL RIGHTS

ART. XIII.†—Sec. 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

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*Proposed by Congress and declared adopted in 1804.
†Declared adopted, December, 1865.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ART. XIV.*—Sec. 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Sec. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed; but when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State (being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States), or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in said State.

Sec. 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; but Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

Sec. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties, for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned; but neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave. But all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Sec. 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ART. XV.†—Sec. 1. The right of the citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Sec. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

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*Declared adopted, July, 1868.
†Declared adopted, March, 1870

INDEX

ABBAS, 585.
ABD-EL-KADER, 225, 612.
A BECKET, THOMAS, 255, 256, 257.
  Canonization of, 258.
ABEL, 6.
ABIRAM, 16.
ABOUKIR, battle of, 217.
ABRAHAM, the call of, 9, 35.
ABSALOM, 19.
ABUBEKER, 162, 163.
ABUSIR, 611.
ABYDOS, 611.
ABYSSINIA, 615, 616.
ACADEMY (the French), 206.
ACCOLADE, the, 183.
ACHÆAN LEAGUE, 72, 73.
ACHILLES, 50.
ACTIUM, battle of, 116.
ADAM, 4, 5, 6.
ADAMS, JOHN, 490, 499, 503, 504, 506, 514.
ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY, 514.
ADDISON, JOSEPH, 295.
ADHERBAL, 106.
ADRIAN, 28, 123, 124, 244.
ADRIANOPLE, 159.
ADUA, battle of, 386, 616.
ÆCUS, 143.
ÆDILES, office of, created, 89, 136.
ÆGIALUS, 48.
ÆGOSPOTAMI, 63.
ÆLIA CAPITOLINA, 28.
ÆMILIUS, 101.
ÆNEAS, 50, 82.
ÆQUI, Rome invaded by, 90.
ÆSCHINES, 67.
ÆTIUS, death of, 133.
AFFRE, Archbishop, 228.
AFGHANISTAN, 304, 586, 587.
AFRICA, circumnavigation of, 40, 98; 608-620.
  Partition of, 618, 619, 620.
AFRICAN INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 617.
AGAMEMNON, 50.
AGA MOHAMMED, 585.
AGESILAUS, 64.
AGINCOURT, battle of, 267.
AGRARIAN LAW, 90.
AGRICOLA, service of, 122, 244.
AGRIGENTUM, 100.
AGRIPPA, 117.
AGRIPPA II, 26.
AGRIPPA, MENENIUS, 89.
AGRIPPINA, 120.
AGUA NUEVA, 525.
AGUINALDO, defeat of, 555.
AHAZ, 33.
AHMED KHAN, 586.
AIGUES MORTES, 200.
AINOS, the, 595.
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, peace of, 209, 297, 393.
AJAX, 50.
ALABAMA, 538.
ALABAMA CLAIMS, the, 303, 304, 547, 548.
ALARIC, 132.
ALASKA, 547, 557.
ALASKA (Russian America) sold to the United States, 409.
ALBANS, the, 84.
ALBANY (Fort Orange), 464.
ALBERT, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, 300.
ALBERTUS, MAGNUS, 159.
ALBIGENSES, 158, 370.
ALBINUS, 126.
ALBOINUS, 373.
ALCABALAS, the, 568.
ALCIBIADES, 62.
ALCORAN. (See Koran.)
ALCUIN, 152.
ALECTO, 143.
ALEXANDER I (of Russia), 407, 408.
ALEXANDER II (Russia), assassination, 410.
ALEXANDER THE GREAT, 23, 36, 38, 40, 68, 69, 70, 587.
ALEXANDRALAND, 606.
ALEXANDRIA, library of, 40, 69, 164, 608, 609.
ALEXIS, fears, of, 170.
ALEXIUS, 175.
ALFARO, President, 572.
ALFONSO XIII, 367.
ALFRED THE GREAT, 153, 154, 246, 247.
ALGECIRAS, conference at, 614.
ALGERIA, French conquest of, 225, 612, 613.
ALGERINE PIRATES, 612.
ALGIERS, surrender of, 223.
ALI, 162.
ALIEN LAW, the, 506.
ALLIA, the, 95.
ALLIES, the, France occupied by, 222.
ALMA, battle of, 229, 301.
ALMAGRO, 454, 455.
ALMANZOR, 150.
AL MOSTASEM, 165.
ALSACE, 400.
ALSACE-LORRAINE, attitude toward Germany, 402.
ALTHAM, REV. JOHN, S. J., 474.
ALVARADO, 528.
AMADAS, Captain, 459.
AMADEUS I, 366.
AMALEKITES, 17.
AMERICA, 274, 298, 364, 451, 455, 483, 510, 548.
AMERICA (British), 482.
AMERICA, Central, 568, 569.
AMERICA, South, 457.
AMIENS, peace of, 218.
AMON, 152.
AMONITES, 18.

AMPHICTYONIC COUNCIL, 66, 76.
AMPHIPOLIS, 62.
AMPUDIA, General, 523, 524.
AMROU, 163.
ANANIAS, 623.
ANAXAGORAS, 76.
ANCONA, surrender of, 384.
ANCUS MARCIUS, 84.
ANDALUSIA, 369.
ANDRÉ, Major, 497.
ANDRONICUS, Emperor, 638.
ANDRONICUS, Livius, 139.
ANGLES, the, 148, 245.
ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE, 599.
ANGUS, Earl of, 320.
ANJOU, Margaret of, 268.
ANNAM, 605.
ANNE, Duchess of Courland, Russia under, 406.
ANNE, Princess, father opposed by, 293.
ANNE, Queen, accession of, 295.
ANTI-FEDERALISTS, 504.
ANTIETAM, battle of, 542.
ANTIOCH, 624.
  Capture of, 171.
ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT, cruelty of, 24, 41, 103.
ANTIPATER, 25, 71.
ANTISTHENES, 75.
ANTOINETTE, MARIE, 214.
ANTONINUS, MARCUS AURELIUS, 124.
ANTONINUS, wall of, 244.
ANTONINUS, TITUS, 124.
ANTONY, MARK, 41, 115.
APOCALYPSE (Book of Revelations), the, 627.
APOLLO, functions of, 141, 145.
APOSTLES' CREED, the, 623.
APPIUS, crime of, 92.
  Suicide of, 93.
AQUINAS, ST. THOMAS, 159, 638.
ARABIA, conquest of, 163, 165.
ARABIANS, Eastern Empire assailed by, 148.
ARABI PASHA, 304, 609.
ARAGON, 363.
ARAGON, CATHERINE OF, 275.
ARARAT, Mount, 7.
ARATUS, 72.
ARAUCANIAN INDIANS, the, 574.
ARBACES, 32.
ARBELA, battle of, 69.
ARBITRATION COMMISSION, 552.
ARC, JOAN OF, 268.
ARCADIUS, 132.
ARCHIDAMUS, 62.
ARCHIMEDES, 102.
AREOPAGUS, Court of, 48, 80.
ARGENTINA, 458, 575, 576, 577.
ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION, 49.
ARGOS, 48, 62.
ARIANISM, 131.
ARISTA, General, 519, 523.
ARISTIDES, 56, 59, 60.
ARISTODEMUS, Sons of, 51.
ARISTOGITON, 55.
ARISTOTLE, 75, 156.
ARIUS, 631, 632.
ARK AND DOVE, the, 474.
ARK OF THE COVENANT, 15, 17.
ARK, the, 7, 8.
ARKANSAS, 538.
ARKLOW, battle of, 354.
ARMADA, the Invincible, 281, 365.
ARMAGH, 334.
ARMENIA, 7.
ARMSTRONG, 354.
ARMY (American), 492, 499.
ARNOLD, COLONEL BENEDICT, 488, 496, 497.
ARTAXERXES, 23, 36.
ARTAXERXES II, 36.
ARTAXERXES, LONGIMANUS, 59.
ARTHUR, CHESTER A., 549.
ARTHUR, Prince, 245.
ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION, defects of, 500.
ARTOIS, COUNT D', 223.
ARUNDELIAN MARBLES, 48.
ARYANS, 587.
ASCALON, 28, 172.
ASDRUBAL, defeat of, 99, 102.
ASHANTEES, 304, 307.
ASHUR, 31.
ASIA, 584-607.
ASSEMBLY, Constituent, the, 213.
ASSEMBLY, Legislative, 213.
ASSOCIATION, Law of, 239.
Associations Cultuelles, 240.
ASSOUAN DAM, the, 610.
ASSUERUS, 23.
ASSYRIA, 31, 33, 34.
ASTARTE, 140.
ASTOLPHUS, Pepin's defeat of, 189, 374.
ASTON, SIR ARTHUR, 288.
ASUNCION, 578, 579.
ATAHUALPA, 454.
ATAULPHUS, 133.
ATHELSTAN, 248.
ATHELWOLD, 250.
ATHENS, 48, 53, 54, 63, 74, 625.
ATHLONE, siege of, 347.
ATHOS, 56.
ATRAPOS, 143.
ATTICA, calamities of, 62.
ATTILA, 133.
AUDNOW (S. J.), REV., 591.
AUERSTADT, battle of, 219.
AUGHRIM, battle of, 348.
AUGSBURG, Confession of, 644.
AUGSBURG, League of, 207.
AUGURS, the, 137.
AUGUSTUS, 117.
AUMULIUS, 83.
AURELIAN, 127, 629.
AURELIUS, MARCUS, 628.
AURUNGZEBE, 588.
AUSTERLITZ, battle of, 218.
AUSTRALIA, 606.
AUSTRIA, 216, 217, 231, 379, 385, 393, 394, 395, 397, 399, 400.
AUSTRIANS, defeats of, 209, 217, 218, 220, 297, 391.
AVICENNA, 156.
AVIGNON, 378, 638.
AYACUCHO, 572.
AYOLAS, 578.

BAAL, 140.
BAAL, worship of, 330.
BAAL-PEOR, 140.
BABEL, Tower of, 9.

Babylon, captives in, 21, 31, 32, 33, 34, 70, 139.
Bacchus, 144.
Bacon, Roger, 159.
Bacon, Sir Francis, 282.
Bacon, Sir Nicholas, 281.
Bacon's Rebellion, 464.
Bactria, 586.
Bagdad, 165.
Bahama Islands, discovery of, 449.
San Salvador, 449.
Bahia, 579.
Bahr-el-Ghazal, 618, 619.
Bainbridge, Captain, 506, 510.
Baker, Colonel E. D., 540.
Balaklava, 301.
Baldwin, 170.
Baldwin, Earl of Flanders, 175, 176.
Baldwin I, 172.
Baliol, John, 262, 312.
Ballivian, Adolfo, 574.
Ball's Bluff, 540.
Ballynahinch, 354.
Balmaceda, 574.
Balmes, 369.
Baltic Fleet, the, 603.
Baltimore, attack on, 512.
Balytas, 629.
Bancroft, George, observation of, 474.
Bangor, 334.
Banim, John, 361.
Banim, Michael, 361.
Banks, General, 545.
Bannockburn, battle of, 263, 313.
Baratieri, General, 616.
Barbarossa (Corsair), 612.
Barbarossa. (See Frederick I.)
Barbary States, war with, 506.
Barca, 619.
Barcelona, 369.
Barclay, Robert, 477.
Bard, the, 331.
Bardes, 152.
Barlow, Captain, 459.
Barnet, battle of, 271.
Barney, Commodore, 512.
Barrington, Sir Jonah, 352.
Basil, 154.
Basilowitz, John, 405.
Bass, 607.
Bastile, fall of the, 212.
Basuto Country, the, 616.
Battle of Nations, the, 221.
Baum, Colonel, 494.
Bautzen, battle of, 221.
Bayard, 199.
Bayle, 648.
Bazaine, Marshal, 234.
Beauregard, General, victory of, 540.
Bede, the Venerable, 161.
Bedford, Duke of, 196.
Belesis, 32.
Belisarius, 148, 373.
Belize, 568.
Bellutus, Licinius, 89.
Beloochistan, 587.
Belshazzar, 33, 34.
Belus, 31.
Beneventum, 97.
Benjamin, 11.
Bennington, battle of, 494.
Berengarius, 636.
Berkeley Castle, 263.
Berkeley, Sir William, 463.
Berlin Conference, the, 618.
Berlin Decree, 507.
Berlin, treaty of, 409.
Bermingham, Sir Richard, 341.
Bethel, 20.
Bethlehem, 621.
Bethsaida, 28.
Beza, Theodore, 201, 645.
Birrell, Mr., 360.
Bishops, contest of James II with, 293.
Bismarck, Prince, 399, 401.
Bithynia, 624.
Black Prince, the, 194, 264, 265.
Bladensburg, battle of, 512.
Blaine, James G., 549.
Blake, Admiral, 288.
Blanche, of Castile, 192.
Blanco, Guzman, 570.
Blenheim, battle of, 207, 295.
Blockade, effects of, 543.
Blucher, 222, 398.
Boadicea, Queen, 244.
Boers, 306, 617.
Boleyn, Anne, 275, 277.
Bolingbroke, Lord, 296.
Bolivar, Simon, 458, 570.
Bolivia, 458, 573, 574.
Bologna, 383.
Bonaparte, Jerome, 219.
Bonaparte, Joseph, 219, 220.
Bonaparte, Louis, 219.
Bonaparte, Napoleon, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 225, 398, 407, 408, 507.
Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat, 175.
Borda, 578.
Borland, Mr., 535.
Borodino, battle of, 408.
Borussi, the, 396.
Bosnia, 395.
Bossuet, 208, 647.
Boston, 468.
Boston, evacuation of, 489.
Boston Massacre, 484.
Boston Port Bill, 484.
Boston Tea Party, the, 484.
Bosworth, battle of, 272.
Botany Bay, 606.
Bothwell, Earl of, 324.
Boulanger, General, 236.
Bourdaloue, 208, 647.
Boxer Movement, the, 593.
Boyer, 582.
Boyne, battle of the, 294, 345, 346.
Braddock, General, defeat of, 480.
Bradford, William, 467.
Bradshaw, 290.
Bragg, General, 542.
Brahminism, 587.
Brandenburg, 396.
Brandywine, battle of, 493.
Brasidas, 62.
Brazil, 414, 457, 458, 459, 577, 580, 581.
Brebeuf (S. J.), Father, 648.
Breckinridge, John C., 538.
Brennus, invasion of, 94.
Romans defeated by, 95.
Brian, King, 334.

Bridgewater, 511.
Bright, John, 301.
Brissot, 215.
Britain, expedition into, 119, 148, 244, 486.
British East India Company, 484.
British Honduras. (See Belize.)
Britons, Cæsar resisted by the, 243, 245.
Broke, Captain, 511.
Brook, Colonel, 512.
Brown, George, 341.
Brown, General, victory of, 511.
Browning, Robert, 309.
Brownists. (See Pilgrims.)
Bruadair, 335.
Bruce, Edward, 340.
Bruce, Robert, accession of, 312.
Bruce, Robert (King), English defeated by, 263, 313.
Brugsch, 611.
Brundisium, 110.
Brunswick, Duke of, 490.
Brutus, 86, 87, 115.
Bryan, William J., 552, 553, 561.
Buchanan, James, 538.
Buckingham, Duke of, 283, 284.
Buckner, General, 540.
Buena Vista, 525, 526, 527.
Buenos Ayres, 573, 576.
Buffalo, 556.
Bulgaria, 409.
Bulgarians, Eastern Empire assailed by, 148.
Bull Run, battle of, 540.
Bull Run (Second), battle of, 542.
Bunker Hill, battle of, 487.
Burgoyne, General, surrender of, 210, 494.
Burgundians, the, 148.
Burleigh, Lord, 281.
Burke, Edmund, observations of, 214; 361, 489.
Burkley, Admiral, 508.
Burmah, conquest of, 299.
Burmah (Lower), 589.
Burnside, General, 542.
Burr, Aaron, 506.
Butler, General, 524.
Butler, General B. F., 539, 541.
Butler, Samuel, 292.
Byllinge, 477.
Byron, Lord, 309.
Byzantium. (See Constantinople.)

Cabot, John, 451, 562.
Cabot, Sebastian, 451, 452, 562, 274.
Cabral, Pedro Alvarez, 579.
Caceres, 573.
Cade, Jack, 268.
Cadiz, 362, 369.
Cadmus, 47.
Cæsar, Augustus, 115.
Cæsar, Julius, 41, 109, 110, 111, 113, 114, 187, 242, 243, 244.
Cain, 6.
Calais, capture of, 194, 200, 264, 279.
Calcutta, 588.
Calderon, 369.
Caleb, 16.
Caledonia, 244.
Calendar, the Revolutionary, 215.
Cæsar's reform of, 114.
Calicut, 451.
California, 528, 533, 534.
Caligula, character of, 119.
Caliphs, Empire of, 150, 151, 152.
Calvert, Cecil, 473.
Calvert, Leonard, 473.
Calvert, Sir George, 473.
Calvin, 645.
Cambodia, 605.
Cambray, League of, 198.
Cambridge (University), 158.
Cambyses, 22, 35, 36.
Camden (S. C.), 496.
Camillus, 94, 95.
Campero, 574.
Campo Formio, 217.
Campus Martius, the, 136.
Canaan, 5, 9, 12, 16, 27, 38.
Canaanites, worship of, 140.
Canada, Dominion of, 307, 488, 509, 563, 564, 565.
Canby, General, 548.
Cannæ, battle of, 101.
Cannes, 222.
Canute, 250.
Cape Colony, 616.
Cape Town, 307.
Capet, Hugh, 191.
Cappadocia, 624.
Capua, 102.
Caprivi, General Von, 401.
Carabobo, battle of, 570.
Caracalla, 126.
Caractacus, 119, 244.
Carberry Hill, battle of, 325.
Cardinals, Italian, opposition to the, 381.
Carlists, the, 366, 369.
Carlos, Don, 366.
Carlostadius, 645.
Carlovingian Dynasty, feebleness of, 190.
Carlyle, Thomas, 309.
Carnot (President), assassination of, 237.
Carroll of Carrollton, Charles, 515.
Cartaret, Sir George, 477.
Carthage, 38, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 114.
Carthusians, the, 157.
Cartier, Jacques, 459, 562.
Carver, John, 466.
Casablanca, 614.
Cashel, 334.
Casimir, 415.
Cass, Lewis, 538.
Cassander, 71.
Cassation, Court of, 238.
Cassius, 115.
Castelar, 369.
Castelfidardo, battle of, 384.
Castile, 363.
Castilla, Ramon, 572.
Castro, President, 570.
Catalonia, 369.
Catharine II, 407.
Catholic Church, 185, 208, 278, 280, 291, 299, 300, 388, 453, 591, 651, 652, 653.
Catholic Relief Bill, the, 299.

Catiline, conspiracy of, 108.
Cato, Porcius, 103.
Caudium, defeat at, 96.
Cavaignac, General, 227.
Cawnpore, 589.
Caxton, William, 272.
Cayenne, 571.
Cecrops, 47.
Celman, Miguel Juarez, 576.
Celts, the, 187.
Centennial Exhibition, 548.
Censor, 93, 136.
Ceres, 142, 145.
Cerro Gordo, 529.
Cerularius, Michael, 635.
Cervantes, Miguel, 369.
Chacas, 573.
Chalcedon, Council of, 634.
Chaldeans, worship of, 34.
Chalons, Huns defeated at, 133.
Chamblee, Fort, 488.
Champlain, Samuel de, 478, 562.
Chancellorsville, battle of, 543.
Chandler, General, 510.
Chapultepec, 532.
Charlemagne, 151, 152, 153, 189, 190, 374.
Charles Albert, 379, 380.
Charles Gustavus, 418.
Charles I, 284, 285, 286.
Charles II, flight of, 288, 290, 465.
Charles the Simple, 190.
Charles V (of France), 195.
Charles V (of Spain), 199, 200, 364, 365, 392.
Charles VII, successes of, 268.
Charles XII, 406, 415, 418.
Charleston, assault on, 489, 496, 549.
Charlestown, burning of, 487.
Charon, 143.
Chatham, Lord. (See William Pitt.)
Chemulpo, 601.
Cheronæa, battle of, 67.
Chesapeake, the, 508, 511.
Chevy Chase, 314.
Chicago Exposition, the, 551.
Childeric, 187.
Chili, 458, 550, 573, 574, 575.
China, 230, 236, 302, 591, 592, 593, 594.
Chino-Japanese War, 593.
Chippewa, battle of, 511.
Christ, Jesus, 6, 25, 26, 118, 119.
Christina, Queen (of Sweden), 418.
Christianity, 129, 131, 215, 218, 624.
Christians, 122, 124, 128, 168, 230, 246, 302, 392, 596, 606, 626, 628.
Christophe, 582.
Church and State, separation of, 239.
  Controversy, 240.
Church of England, 286, 291, 358.
Church, the Catholic, property of confiscated, 213.
  Property of sequestrated, 215, 216.
  Property in Philippines, 555.
Churubusco, 531.
Chivalry, 181, 182, 183, 186.
Cialdini, General, 384.
Cicero, 108, 110, 115.
Cimbri, the, 417.
Cimon, 59, 60, 61.
Cinna, 107.
Cincinnatus, Quintius, office of Dictator conferred on, 90.
Circumcision, rite of, 29.
Cis, 17.
Cisalpine Gaul, conquest of, 100.
Citeaux, order of, 157.
Civilization, decline of, 148.
Civil Service Law, 549.
Civil War, 285.
  Beginning of, 539.
  End of, 546.
  The expense of, 547.
Cyaxares, 33.
Cyprus, 38.
Cyrus, 21, 33, 35, 36.
Cyrus (the Younger), 64.
Clare, Richard de. (See Strongbow.)
Clarence, the Duke of, 272.
Clarendon, Constitutions of, 256.
Clarendon, Lord, 477.
Clark and Lewis. (See Lewis and Clark.)
Clay, Henry, 533, 535.
Clayborne, William, 474.
Clayton, John M., 533.
Claudius, death of, 119, 120, 244.
Clement VII, Henry VIII's application to, 275.
Cleombrotus, death of, 65.
Cleon, 62.
Cleopatra, 40, 41, 113, 116.
Clermont, Council of, 169.
Cleveland, Grover, 549, 550.
Cleves, Anne of, 277.
Clinton, Sir Henry, 496, 497.
Clitomachus. (See Asdrubal.)
Clive, Robert, 588.
Clonard, 334.
Clonfert, 334.
Clonmacnoise, 334.
Clodio, 187.
Clotho, 143.
Clovis, 187.
Cluni, order of, 157.
Clusium, 94.
Clytus, 68.
Cnidus, 64.
Coalition, the Third, 218.
  The Fourth, 219.
  The Fifth, 221.
Cobbett, William, 645.
Cobden, Richard, 301.
Cochin-China, 605.
Cochrane, Admiral, 512.
Cockburn, Admiral, 511.
Cocles, Horatius, 88.
Cod, Cape, 460.
Coddington, 469.
Codrus, 53.
Coimbra, 414.
Colbert, 207.
Colchis, 49.
Coleridge, Samuel T., 309.
Coligny, Admiral, 201.
Colombia, the United States of, 448, 558, 569.
Columbus, Christopher, 364, 445, 446, 447, 449, 450.
Commandments, the Ten, 14.

Commerce and Labor, Department of, created, 556, 557.
Commodus, 125.
Commonwealth, the, 289.
Communists, the, 235.
Conary the Great, 331.
Concord, 485.
Concordat, 241.
Condé, 201, 207.
Condero, Luis, 572.
Condorcet, 215.
Confederate States of America, the, 539, 540, 542, 543.
Confederation of the Rhine, 219.
Congo Free State, the, 617.
Congress, the Colonial, 483.
Connaught, troops of, 335.
Connecticut, 469.
Conon, 64.
Conrad, Emperor, 389.
Conrad II, 390.
Conrad III, 172.
Constans, 130.
Constantine the Great, 129, 130, 621, 630.
Constantinople, 130, 148, 158, 176, 632.
Constantius, 128, 130, 630.
Constellation, the capture of, 505.
Constitution, 501, 502, 510.
Consuls, the first, 87, 135.
Office of, restored, 93.
Continental Congress, the, 485.
Contreras, 530, 531.
Convention, the Constitutional, 500.
Corcyra, 62.
Cordeliers Club, the, 213.
Cordova, 165, 363.
Core. (See Korah.)
Corea. (See Korea.)
Corinth, 73, 104, 114, 625.
Corinthians, 62.
Coriolanus, banishment of, 90.
Cormac Ulfada, 331, 332.
Corn Laws, the, 301.
Cornwallis, Lord, 492, 496, 498, 589.
Coronea, battle of, 64.
Corporations, federal control of, 561.
Corral, Ramon, 567.
Cortes, Hernando, 452.
Costa Rica, 568.
Covenant, the National, 285.
Cowley, Abraham, 292.
Cowpens, the, 497.
Coxey, J. S., 552.
Cranaus, 48.
Cranmer, Thomas, 276.
Crassus, 108, 109.
Creation, the, 4.
Crespo, Joaquin, 570.
Cressy, battle of, 194, 264.
Crichton, Sir William, 316.
Crimea, the, invasion of, 229.
Crimean War, the, 230, 301, 302, 408.
Crispi, overthrow of, 386.
Cromwell, Oliver, 277, 285, 289, 290, 343, 344.
Cromwell, Richard, 290.
Crusades, the, 156, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 175, 178, 179, 637.
Crown Point, 481, 487.
Cuba, 367, 449, 534, 555, 583, 584.
Cuestas, Vice-President, 578.
Culloden, battle of, 297.
Cumberland, Duke of, 297.
Cunaxa, battle of, 64.
Cupid, 144.
Cures, 84.
Curiatii, the, 84.
Currency Question, the, 552.
Cursor, Papirius, 96.
Custer, General, 548.
Custozza, battle of, 380.

Dagon, 140.
Dallas, George M., 516.
Damascus, 173, 623.
Dan, temple at, 20.
Danbury, 493.
Danes, invasions of, 153.
Danes, defeat of, 334.
Danton, 215.
Dardanus, 50.
Darnley, Lord, 323, 324.
Darius, 22, 36, 55, 56, 69.
Dark Ages, the, 147.
Dathan, 16.
David, King, 18, 20, 38.
David II, 313.
Davis, Henry G., 558.
Davis, Jefferson, 539, 546.
Davis, Thomas Osborne, 361.
Daza, 574.
Dead Sea, the, 10.
Deane, Silas, 493.
De Bonald, remark of, 649.
De Bourbon, defection of, 199.
Death of, 200.
Decatur, Captain, victory of, 510.
Decius, 96, 629.
Decemvirs, 91, 92, 93.
DeCourcy, John, 340.
Deiphobus, 50.
Deities, the infernal, 143.
The Pagan, 140-145.
Delaware, settlement of, 476.
Delhi, 302, 588.
Delphi, oracle of, 145.
Deluge, the, 6, 7, 8.
Democratic Party, 506, 517, 550.
Democritus, 76.
Demosthenes, 67, 71.
Denmark, 399.
Dentatus, Licinius, murder of, 92.
Dermot, King, 337.
De Ruyter, Admiral, 288.
Descartes, 208.
Desiderius, 189, 374.
Dessalines, 582.
Dettingen, battle of, 209, 297.
Deucalion, deluge of, 48.
Devil's Island, 238.
Dewey, Commodore, victory of, 554.
Diana, 142, 145.
Diaz, Bartholomew, 413.
Diaz, Porfiria, 566, 567.
Dickens, Charles, 309.
Dictator, office of, created, 88.
Diderot, 648.
Dido, 38.
Diocletian, 128, 629.
Diodorus, 45.
Diogenes, 75.

Diomedes, 50.
Dionysius, 99.
Diospolis. (See Thebes.)
Directory, the, 217.
Dodona, oracles of, 145.
Döllinger, Dr., 401.
Dominican Order, the, 371, 564.
Dominican Republic, the, 561, 582.
Domitian, 122, 627.
Dom Jao, 579.
Dom Pedro, 414, 548, 579.
Dom Pedro II, 579.
Donatus, 633.
Donelson (Fort), 540.
Doomsday Book, the, 252.
Dorr's Rebellion, 515.
Dorylæum, victory at, 171.
Dost Mohammed, 586.
Douglas, 266, 314.
Douglas, Earl of, 317.
Douglases, the, 320.
Downie, Commodore, 511.
Doyle, Bishop, 357.
Draco, code of, 53.
Drake, Sir Francis, 460.
Drama, the Greek, 80, 81.
Dravidians, 587.
Dreibund, the (see Triple Alliance), 401.
Dreyfus, Captain Alfred, 238.
Drogheda, massacre at, 288, 343.
Druids, the, 330.
Drummond, General, 511.
Dryden, John, 292.
Du Guesclin, 195.
Duillius, victory of, 100.
Duma, establishment of the, 411.
Dumouriez, 216.
Dunbar, battle of, 262, 288, 312.
Dunkirk, sale of, 291.
Dupleix, General, 588.
Duquesne, Fort, 479.
Dutch, the, 288, 291, 464, 477, 579, 588, 591, 596, 616.
Dyrrachium, 110.

Earthquakes, the Italian, 388.
Ebion, 627.
Ecclesiastical States, the, 379.
Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, 301.
Echenique, 572.
Ecuador, 458, 571, 572.
Eden, Garden of, 5.
Edessa, 171.
Edgar, 249.
Edict of Nantes, revocation of, 207.
Edmund Ironside, 250.
Education, in England, 309.
Edward I, 262, 263, 312.
Edward II, 263.
Edward III, 194, 263, 264.
Edward IV, 269, 272.
Edward VI, 278.
Edward VII, 307.
Edward the Confessor, 251.
Edward the Elder, 247.
Edward the Martyr, 250.
Edwin. (See Edwy.)
Edwy, 248.
Egan, Patrick, 575.
Egbert, 245.
Egypt, 9, 10, 13, 35, 36, 39, 41, 42, 43, 69, 113, 163, 217, 304, 608-612.
Elam, 35.
Elba, Island of, 222, 393.
Eleanor, of Guienne, 204.
Elfrida, 249.
Elgiva, 248.
Eli, 17.
Elizabeth, Empress, 407.
Queen, 215, 278, 280, 282, 312
El Pinnel, 530.
Elysium, 146.
Emancipation, Catholic, 357
Proclamation, 542.
Embargo, the, 507.
Emmanuel, Victor, 232.
Emperors, Eastern, occupation of, 150, 157.
Empire, Eastern, disorders of, 156.
Empire of the West, division of, 389.
Empress of India, 589, 590.
Endicott, John, 468.
Enghien, Duke d', 218.
England, 153, 196, 197, 209, 219, 229, 240, 242, 246, 252, 263, 287, 289, 297, 301, 302, 312, 313, 465, 480, 481, 492, 507, 511.
Enniscorthy, capture of, 354.
Ennius, 138.
Enoch, 6.
Epaminondas, 65.
Ephesus, 625, 634.
Epicurus, 75.
Erie (Fort), capture of, 511.
Erigena, John Scotus, 334.
Eritria, 616.
Erskine, 508.
Erythrea, 386.
(See Eritria.)
Esarhaddon, 33.
Esau, 10.
Esdras, 23.
Esquires, 181.
Essenes, the, 622.
Essex, Earl of, 281.
Estaing, Count d', 495.
Esther, 23.
Ethelbert, 245.
Ethelred the Unready, 250.
Ethiopia, 19.
Eucharistic Congress, 652.
Eudes, 190.
Eudoxia, 134.
Eugene, Prince, 207.
Eugenius III, 172.
Euphrates, 5.
Eurymedon, 60.
Eusebius, 129.
Eutaw Springs, 498.
Eutyches, 634.
Evagrius, 148.
Eve, 5, 6.
Evesham, battle of, 261.
Ewing, Thomas, 533.

Fabianus, 629.
Fabricius, uprightness of, 97.
Fairbanks, Charles W., 558.
Falcon, General, 570.
Falconio, Archbishop, 551.
Falk Laws, the, 401, 650.
Falkirk, battle of, 297.
Falmouth, 489.

FAMINE, the years of, 611.
FARRAGUT, Commodore, victory of, 541.
FASHODA, incident at, 237, 610.
FAURE, FELIX, 237.
FAUSTIN I (Soulouque), 582.
FAWKES, GUY, 283.
FEDERALISTS, the, 504.
FEDERALS, defeat of, 540, 542, 543.
FENELON, 208, 647.
FENIANS, the, 303.
FENWICKE, 477.
FERDINAND, ingratitude of, 450.
FERDINAND, King, 363, 364.
FERDINAND II, 392.
FERDINAND III, 392.
FEUDAL SYSTEM, the origin and nature of, 166, 167, 392.
FEZ, 613.
FEZZAN, 619.
FIDINATES, the, 84.
FIESCHI, crime of, 224.
FILLMORE, MILLARD, 533, 538.
FINANCIAL PANIC, 558.
FINNS, settlement of, 476.
FIRBOLGS, the, 329.
FISHER, Bishop, 277.
FITZGERALD, LORD EDWARD, 353, 354.
FITZ-GERALD, MAURICE, 337.
FITZ-STEPHEN, ROBERT, 337.
FIVE FORKS, battle of, 546.
FLAMINIUS, 101.
FLANDERS, 607.
FLEURY, Cardinal, 209.
FLODDEN FIELD, battle of, 275, 319.
FLORENCE, 374, 640.
FLORES, ANTONIO, 572.
FLORES, JUAN JOSE 572.
FLORIDA, purchase of, 366, 514, 538.
FOMORIANS, the, 329.
FONDI, 638.
FONTENAY, battle of, 190.
FONTENOY, battle of, 209, 297.
FONSECA, 580.
FOREY, General, 232.
FORT PICKENS, 539.
FORTRESS MONROE, 539.
FORT SUMTER, attack on, 539.
FOTHERINGAY CASTLE, 326.
FOUCHÉ, 217.
FOX, CHARLES J., 489.
FRANCE, 149, 151, 187, 191, 195, 196, 206, 211, 213, 216, 219, 223, 224, 227, 229, 231-237, 239, 264, 274, 297, 302, 382, 384, 387, 389, 398, 400, 494, 505, 507, 563, 581, 614.
FRANCIS I, 199, 200, 364, 384.
FRANCIS JOSEPH, 394.
FRANCO-GERMAN WAR, cause of, 233, 235, 366.
FRANKS, the, 148, 187.
FRANKLIN, battle of, 545.
FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN, 211, 490, 493, 499, 501.
FREE MASONS, the, 368.
FREDERICK I, 174, 391, 396, 397.
FREDERICK III, 391.
FREDERICK THE GREAT, achievements of, 397, 398.
FREDERICK WILLIAM II (Prussia), 398.
FREDERICK WILLIAM III, 398.
FREDERICK WILLIAM IV, 398.
FREDERICKSBURG, battle of, 542.
FREIBURG, 206.
FREMONT, JOHN C., 538.
FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, causes of, 478, 479.
FRENCH TROOPS, at Yorktown, 498.
FRENCH, victories of the, 209, 217, 219, 239, 252, 264, 279, 459, 480, 481, 495, 504.
FROLIC, capture of the, 510.
FRONTIERA, 528.
FRY, Colonel, 479.
FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW, 534.
FURIES, the, 143.

GAELIC LANGUAGE, the, 360.
GAETA, 382.
GAGE, General, 484, 485.
GALATIA, 624.
GALBA, 120.
GALERIUS, 128, 630.
GALLETTI, 380.
GALLUS, 118.
GAMA, VASCO DA, 413, 451.
GAMARRA, 572, 573, 574.
GAMES, Public, 76.
GARDNER, General, 545.
GARFIELD, GENERAL JAMES A., 549.
GARIBALDI, 384.
GARTER, Order of the, 264.
GASCA, PEDRO DE LA, 455.
GASCOIGNE, JUDGE WILLIAM, 267.
GASTON DE FOIX, 199.
GATES, GENERAL HORATIO, 494.
GAUL, condition of, 148.
GAULS, the, 94, 95, 187.
GAY, 295.
GAZA, 28, 69.
GEFFRARD, General, 582.
GELON, 99.
GENOA, 374.
GENGHIS KHAN, 158, 586.
GENSERIC, 134.
GEORGE I, accession of, 296.
GEORGE II, 296, 297, 298.
GEORGE III, 298, 299.
GEORGE IV, 299, 356.
GEORGIA, 477, 478, 538.
GERMANIC CONFEDERATION, the, 393.
GERMANTOWN, battle of, 494.
GERMANY, 118, 127, 155, 158, 216, 233, 235, 236, 308, 385, 389, 391, 393, 400-404, 614.
GERRY, ELBRIDGE, 502.
GETTYSBURG, battle of, 543.
GHENT, treaty of, 513, 514.
GHIBELLINES, the, 378.
GIBBONS, CARDINAL, 203, 549, 642.
GIBBS, General, 513.
GIBRALTAR, 295.
GIHON, 28.
GINCKLE, General, 348.
GIRONDISTS, the, 215.
GLADIATORS, the, 137.
GLADSTONE, W. E., 305, 357.
GLENDOWER, OWEN, 267.
GLOUCESTER, Duke of, 265, 272. (See Richard III.)
GOA, 588.
GODFREY OF BOUILLON, 170.
GOLDSMITH, observation of, 134, 361.
GOMEZ, President, 570.

Gomorrah, 10.
Gortschakoff, Prince, 229.
Gordon, General, 305, 609.
Gorges, Sir Ferdinando, 465.
Gorgon, the, 145.
Gorostiza, 518.
Goshen, 12.
Gosnold, Bartholomew, 460.
Goths, victory of, 127, 131.
Gracchus, Caius, 105.
Gracchus, Tiberius, 105.
Graces, the, 144.
Grafton, Duke of, 484.
Granada, conquest of, 363.
Granicus, the, 68.
Grant, General, 540, 544, 546, 547, 549.
Granville, Richard, 459.
Grasse, Count de, victory of, 498.
Gratian, 131.
Grattan, Henry, 351, 361.
Gravelotte, battle of, 234.
Graves, Admiral, defeat of, 498.
Gray, Elizabeth, 271.
Gray, Thomas, 298.
Greece, 38, 47, 48, 66, 67, 71, 72, 73, 105.
Greeks, the, 71, 73, 79, 159, 223, 299.
Greek Schism, foundations of the, 636.
Greene, General Nathanael, 497, 498.
Greenville, treaty of, 504.
Gregory the Great, 245.
Gregory XIII, 203.
Grévy, Jules, 235, 236.
Grey, Jady Jane, 278, 279.
Grey, Lord, 322.
Griffin, Gerald, 361.
Griqualand, West, 616.
Guadalupe Hidalgo, treaty of, 532, 533.
Guatemala, 567, 568.
Guelphs, the, 378.
Guerrero, 565.
Guianas, the, 571.
Guilford C. H., battle of, 497.
Guiscard, Robert, 377.
Guise, Duke of, 201.
Gunpowder Plot, the, 283.
Gurko, General, 409.
Gustavus Adolphus, 418.
Gustavus Vasa, 417.

Habeas Corpus Act, the, 292.
Hafid, Mulai, 614.
Halicarnassus, 68.
Halifax, 489.
Hallidon Hill, battle of, 263.
Ham, 8, 9, 31, 39.
Hamilcar, 99, 100, 101.
Hamilton, Alexander, 503, 504.
Hamilton, General, 346.
Hancock, General Winfield S., 549.
Hannibal, 98, 101, 102, 103.
Hanno, 98, 100, 101.
Hapsburg Dynasty, 393.
Haran, 9.
Harmer, General, 503.
Harmodius, 55.
Harold Harefoot, 251.
Harold (Son of Godwin), 251.
Haroun-al-Raschid, 165.
Harpies, the, 145.
Harrison, General, success of, 511; 515.
Harrison Benjamin, 549, 550.
Haruspices, the, 137.
Harvard University, 471.
Harvey, Sir John, 463.
Hastings, battle of, 251.
Hastings, Lord, 272.
Hastings, Warren, 588.
Hawaiian Islands, the, 550, 555.
Hay, John, 599.
Hayes, Rutherford B., 548, 549.
Hayti, 449, 581, 582, 583.
Hazeltine, Mayo W., 618.
Heber, 330.
Hebrews, the, 13, 17, 29.
Hector, 50.
Hegira, the, 162.
Helen, 49.
Heliogabalus, 126.
Heliopolis, 45.
Hellespont, bridging of, 57.
Hendricks, Thomas A., 549.
Henry I, the Fowler, 389.
Achievements of, 390.
Henry I, 253.
Henry II, 192, 258, 336, 339.
Henry II (Germany), 390.
Henry III, 192, 204, 261, 390.
Henry IV, 175, 204, 205, 266, 375, 377, 390, 637.
Henry V, France invaded by, 196, 267.
Henry VI, 268.
Henry VII, 272-274, 341, 391, 392.
Henry VIII, 274, 275, 276, 278, 645.
Henry, Patrick, 483.
Heptarchy, the Anglo-Saxon, 148, 245.
Heraclidæ, return of, 50.
Heraclitus, 76.
Heraclius, 149.
Herculaneum, 122.
Hercules, 48.
Heremon, 330.
Hermandad, the Santa, funds furnished by, 446.
Herod Agrippa I, 26.
Herod II, 26.
Herod the Great, 25, 26.
Herodotus, 35.
Herrera, 369.
Hesse, Landgrave of, 489.
Heruli, the, 134, 373.
Herzegovinia, 395.
Heureaux, General Ulisses, 583.
Hezekiah, 33.
Hibernia, 330. (See Ireland.)
Hidalgo, Reverend, 565.
Hiempsal, 106.
Hiero, 99.
Hieroglyphics, the, 45.
High-Priest, office of, 23.
Hill, Sir Rowland, 310.
Hipparchus, 55.
Hippias, 55.
Hippodrome, 41.
Hiram, 38.
History, sources of, 1, 2.
Divisions, 2, 3.
Beginning, 4.

History, Modern, beginning of, 147.
Hobart, 607.
Hoche, the, 355.
Hochelaga, 562.
Hohenlinden, battle of, 217.
Holland, Pilgrims in, 466, 570.
Hollins, Captain, 536.
Holstein, 399.
Holy of Holies, 15.
Holy Land, the, 27.
Home (Interior) Department created, 533.
Home Rule, 305, 358.
Homer, poems of, 55.
Honduras, 568.
Honorius, 132.
Hood, General J. B., 545.
Hooker, General, 543.
Hooker, Rev. Mr., 469.
Horace, 118.
Horatii, the, 84.
Hornet, the, 511.
Hotspur, 266.
Howard, Catherine, 277.
Howard, Thomas. (See Earl of Surrey.)
Howe, Admiral, Lord, 491.
Howe, General, 489, 491.
Hubertsberg, treaty of, 397.
Hudson, Henry, 464.
Hugh of Vermandois, 170.
Huguenots, treatment of, 201, 208.
Hulaku, 165.
Hull, Captain, victory of, 510.
Hull, General, 509.
Humbert, General, Ireland invaded by, 355.
Humbert, King, accession of, 385, 386.
Hungary, discontent in, 394.
Huns, defeat of, 133.
Hunter, Lieutenant, 528.
Huron Indians, 563.
Huss, John, 639, 640.
Hydaspes, the, 70.
Hyrcanus, John, 25.

Iberia, 362.
Iconium, 172.
Iconoclasts, the, 635.
Idolatry, beginning of, 140.
Iliad, the, 49.
Illyria, campaign in, 118.
Immaculate Conception, defined, 650.
Imperialists, the, defeat of, 418.
Inachus, 48.
Independents, 287.
India, 70, 298, 587-590.
Indians, the, origin of name, 449.
Indulgence, Declaration of, 293.
Infallibility of Sovereign Pontiff, 650.
Inkermann, 301.
Innocent III (Pope), 157, 175.
Inquisition, the Roman, 372.
The Spanish, 365, 370, 371, 372.
Inquisitor-General, the, 371.
Investiture, 637.
Ionians, 55, 59.
Ireland, 254, 266, 288, 294, 298, 301, 303, 306, 329, 330, 333, 334, 335, 338, 341, 343, 350, 353, 355, 356, 357, 359, 360, 361.
Irene, 150.
Ireton, remains of, 290.
Irish Brigade, the, 350.
Isaac, 10.
Isaac, Emperor, 175.
Isabella II, 366.
Isabella, Queen, 263, 363, 364.
Ishbosheth, 18.
Ishmael, 161.
Islamism, 162.
Israel, 10, 13, 14, 16, 22.
Israelites, 10, 14, 16, 22.
Isis, 43, 139.
Issus, 68.
Italy, 106, 133, 155, 217, 373, 378, 379, 385-399.
Ivry, battle of, 204.

Jackson, General Andrew, 508, 513, 514.
Jackson, Thomas J. (Stonewall), 542, 543.
Jacob, 10, 12.
Jacobin Club, the, 213, 216.
Jacob's Well, 28.
Jalapa, 530.
James I (of England), 282, 283, 284, 328, 342, 460.
James I (Scotland), 314, 316.
James II, 292, 293, 294, 346, 347.
James II (Scotland), 317.
James III, of Scotland, death of, 318.
James IV, of Scotland, 314, 318, 319.
James V, of Scotland, 319.
James VI (of Scotland). (See James I, of England.)
Jameson, Dr., 617.
Jamestown, settlement of, 460.
Jansenism, 647.
Janus, temple of, 84, 117.
Japan, 535, 558, 559, 595-605.
Japhet, 8, 9.
Jason, 49.
Java, capture of the, 510.
Javan, 47.
Jay, John, 499, 503.
Jay's Treaty, 505.
Jefferson, Thomas, 490, 503, 504, 506, 514.
Jeffreys, Lord, 292.
Jena, battle of, 219, 398.
Jeroboam, 19.
Jerome, of Prague, 640.
Jerusalem, 18, 21, 27, 28, 38, 121, 124, 171, 173, 625.
Jesuits, the, 381, 401, 563, 578, 649.
Jews, the, 9, 24, 29, 33, 35, 41, 194, 371, 401, 410, 412, 621.
Joan of Arc, 196.
Death of, 197.
Jogues (S. J.), Father, 648.
John, King, 259-261.
John, of Brienne, 176, 177.
John II (Abyssinia), 616.
John II (the Good), 194, 195.
John VI (Portugal), in Brazil, 458.
Johnson, Colonel Richard M., 511.
Johnson, President Andrew, 546.
Johnston, Albert Sidney, 541.

Johnston, General Joseph E., 545.
Jones, Captain, victory of, 510.
Joseph and Mary, 622.
Joseph, 10, 12, 14.
Joseph II, 393, 649.
Josephus, 121.
Joshua, 16.
Josiah, 40.
Jousts, 184.
Jovian, 131.
Juarez, 566.
Juba, 113.
Judah, 12, 21.
Judah Kingdom of, 20.
Judah, tribe of, 18.
Judea, 624.
Juddica, 23.
Judges, government of the, 16.
Judith, 615.
Jugurtha, 105, 106.
Julian (the Apostate), 130, 131.
Julianus, Didius, 126.
Junius, Lucius, 89.
Juno, temple of, 95, 142.
Jupiter 139, 141, 145.
Jupiter-Ammon, temple of, 69.
Jurisprudence (Roman), basis of, 91.
Justinian, 373, 431, 432.
Justinian, Institutes of, 433.
Jutes, the, 148, 245.
Juvenal, 123.

Kabyles, the, 613.
Kadija, 162.
Kadjar Dynasty, 585.
Kaffraria, 616.
Kalb, Baron de, 496.
Kaled, 163.
Kansas, troubles in, 535, 537.
Kenneth II, 311.
Kent, Duke of, 299.
Kentucky, 538.
Kern, John W., 561.
Khalifa, 610.
Kharga, 611.
Khartoum, siege of, 305.
Khedive, title of, 609.
Kilkenny, 341.
King Philip's War, cause and results, 472, 473.
King, William R., 535.
Kings (Roman), power of, 135.
Kinsale, James II, 345.
Kirk of Field, explosion at, 324.
Kitchener, General Sir Herbert, 307, 610.
Knighthood. (See Chivalry.)
Knights, 181.
Knights Bannerets, 181.
Knights Hospitallers, the, 186.
Knights Templars, 186, 193.
Knox, General, 503.
Knox, John, 323, 645.
Kohah, 16.
Koran, 161.
Korea, 593, 594, 595, 600.
Kosciusko, General, 416.
Kublai Khan, 591.
Kuroki, General, 602.
Kuropatkin, General, 602, 603.

Labarum, the, 129.
Labienus, 114.
Labyrinth, the, 44.
Lacedæmon, humiliation of, 65.
Lachesis, 143.
Laconia, 50.
Lacordaire, 361.
Lactantius, 146.
Lægrius, King, 333.
La Fayette, Marquis de, 210, 493. 514.
Laing's Neck, 617.
Lalemant (S. J.), Father, 648.
Lamartine, 227.
Lamoricière, General de, 383.
Lancaster, claims of, 269.
Lancaster, Duke of, 265.
Langside, battle of, 325.
Langton, Cardinal, 261.
Language, unity of, 8.
Languedoc, canal of, 208.
Lanus, Pompilius, 115.
Laodicea, 172.
La Plata, 572.
Largius Titus, 88, 89.
La Salle, Jean Baptiste de, 647.
Lateran Palace, the, 630.
Latins, the, 84, 96.
Laud, Archbishop, 285, 286.
Lauenberg, 399.
Laurier, Sir Wilfrid, 565.
Lavinus, 97.
Lawrence, Captain, 511.
Laws (Roman), condition of, 91.
League, the Catholic, 393.
Lecompton, 537.
Lee, Arthur, 493.
Lee, General Charles, 493.
Lee, General Robert E., 542, 543, 546.
Lee, Richard Henry, 490.
Legion, the Thundering, 125.
Leguia, Augusto B., 573.
Leicester Abbey, Wolsey dies at, 276.
Leicester, Earl of, 261, 281.
Leipsic, battle of, 221, 418.
Lemnos, 64.
Lennox, Earl of, 324.
Lentagio, 432.
Leo (the Armenian), 437.
Leo (the Isaurian), 150, 436, 635.
Leo (the Philosopher), 152.
Leolf, 248.
Leonidas, 58.
Leopard, the, 508.
Leopold, Prince of Hohenzollern, 233.
Leopold I, accession of, 425.
Leopold II, accession of, 425.
Lepidus, 115, 116.
Lesseps, Count de, 237.
Lethe, the, 143.
Leuctra, 65.
Lever, Charles, 361.
Levi, tribe of, 15.
Lewes, battle of, 261.
Lewis and Clark, 506.
Lexington, skirmish at, 486.
Liao-yang, 602.
Liberia, 617.
Liberty, worship of, 215.
Licinian Law, 105.
Lictors, the, 83, 135.

Lima, 454.
Limantour, Senor, 568.
Limerick, 294, 348, 349.
Linares, 574.
Lincoln, Abraham, 495, 538, 539, 542, 546.
Linevitch, General, 603.
Lingard, Dr. John, 309.
L'Insurgente, 505.
Lisbon, University of, 158.
Lismore, 334.
Literature, Greek, 77.
Little Belt, the, 509.
Livingston, Alexander, 316.
Livingston, Chancellor, 503, 618.
Livingston, Philip, 490.
Livy, 102, 118.
Lloyd-George, Chancellor, 308.
Lochleven Castle, 325.
Lollards, the, 639.
Lombards, 149, 188, 189, 337, 433.
Lombardy, cession of, 394.
London Company, the, 460, 463.
London, plague, in, 291.
Longinus, 127.
Long Island, battle of, 491.
Lopez, General, 534, 535, 578.
Lorraine, 400.
  Cardinal of, 201.
Lorium, 124.
Lot, 10.
Lothaire, 190.
Loubet, President, 238.
Loughall, 352.
Louis Philippe, 224, 225, 226, 379.
Louis (Portugal), 414.
Louis I (le Debonnaire), 190.
Louis III, 389.
Louis VII, 172.
Louis IX, 177, 178.
Louis XI, cruelty of, 198.
Louis XII, 198.
Louis XIII, 206.
Louis XIV, 206, 207, 295.
Louis XV, 209.
Louis XVI, 210, 213, 214.
Louis XVIII, 222, 223.
Louisburg, taking of, 481.
Louisiana, 478, 506, 538.
L'Ouverture, Toussaint, 581.
Lovell, General, 541.
Low Countries, 365, 424.
Loyola, Ignatius of, 645, 646.
Lucknow, 589.
Lucretia, 86.
Lucullus, 106.
Luneville, peace of, 217.
Lupus, 154.
Lustrum, a, 85.
Luther, Martin, 392, 621, 642, 643.
Lutheranism, spread of, 644.
Lutzen, battle of, 418.
Luzon rebellion in, 555.
Lybia, 612.
Lycurgus, constitution of, 51, 52.
Lysander, victory of, 62, 63.
Lysimachus, 71.

MacCarthy, Prince of Desmond, 339.
McClellan, General G. B., 541, 542.
McCloskey, Archbishop, 548.
McHenry (Fort), attack on, 513.
McKinley, William, 552, 555, 556.
McLean, Kaid Sir Harry, 615.
Macaulay, Lord, 309, 652.
Macdonald, Sir John A., 565.
Macedonia, rise of, 66, 103, 510.
Macdonough, Commodore, 512.
Macedonian Empire, division of, 71.
Macedonius, party of, 633.
Machabees, the, 24.
Machabeus, Judas, 24, 25.
Mack, General, defeat of, 218.
MacMahon, Marshal, 233, 235.
Macomb, General, 512.
Macrinus, 126.
Madagascar, conquest of, 237.
Madison, James, 508, 509.
Mæcenas, 117.
Madras, 588.
Magdala, capture of, 615.
Magellan, Ferdinand, 451.
Magenta, battle of, 231, 394.
Magi, the, 25.
Magnesia, battle of, 103.
Mago, 98.
Magog, 140.
Magruder, General, 539, 541.
Maguire, 342.
Mahmud, of Ghazni, 587.
Mahomet, 161, 162, 163.
Mahrattas, 588.
Maine, destruction of the, 553.
Maitland, Captain, 222.
Majorian, 633.
Majuba Hill, 617.
Makarov, Admiral, 602.
Malachy, 335.
Malesherbes, 210.
Malvern Hill, 542.
Malplaquet, battle of, 207, 295.
Mamelukes, the, 217, 608.
Mamertines, 99.
Manassas. (See Bull Run.)
Manasseh, 33.
Manchuria, Russians in, 593.
Manila, surrender of, 554.
Manlius, Marius, 95, 96.
Manning, Cardinal, 300.
Mantinea, battle of, 65.
Manuel II (Portugal), 414.
Mar, Earl of, 296.
Marat, 215.
Marathon, battle of, 56.
Marcellus, 102.
Marchand, Major, 237, 610.
Marcy, William L., 535.
Mardochai, 23.
Mardonius, 56, 59.
Marengo, battle of, 217.
Margaret (of Sweden), 417.
Margaret, defeat of, 271.
Maria Teresa, 209, 339.
Marion, General Francis, 498.
Marius, 106, 107.
Mark, Metropolitan of Ephesus, 640.
Marlborough, Duke of, 295.
Marlborough, victories of, 207.
Marquette (S. J.), Father, 648.
Mars, jurisdiction of, 141.
Marsden, Rev. Samuel, 607.
Marston Moor, battle of, 285.
Martel, Charles, victory of, 188.
Martinelli, Mgr., 551.
Martyrologist, the 203.
Marx, Karl, 403.
Mary and Joseph, 622.

Mary (Tudor), 278, 279.
Maryland, founding of, 473, 474; religious liberty in, 474, 475.
Masinissa, 103.
Mason, George, 502.
Mason, John, 468.
Masons, the Free, 648.
Massasoit, 467, 468.
Massachusetts Bay, 468, 485.
Massillon, 208, 647.
Matamoras, 519, 523.
Mathathias, 24.
Mather, Rev. Mr., 473.
Mathews, Governor, 464.
Matilda, 254.
Maurice, accession of, 434.
Mauritania, 613.
Maxentius, 129.
Maximilian I, 391.
Maximilian, Grand Duke, 232, 566.
Maximin, 127, 128, 628, 629.
Maximinus, 629.
Maximus, Fabius, 96, 102.
Maximus, Petronius, 134.
May, Captain, 521, 522.
Mayflower, the, 466.
Mayors of the Palace, 150.
Mazarin, Cardinal, 206.
Mazors, the two, 39.
Mazzini, 380.
Meade, General Geo. G., 543.
Mecca, capture of, 162.
Media, 33.
Medici, Cosmo de, 378.
Medicis, Catherine de, 201, 202.
Medicis, Mary de, 206.
Medina, 162.
Meerut, 302.
Megaera, 143.
Megiddo, battle of, 40.
Mehemet Ali, 609.
Melanchthon, 645.
Melville, Sir Andrew, 327.
Melun, 222.
Memphis, 40, 46.
Menelaus, 50.
Menelaus, the High-Priest, 23.
Menelek II, 616.
Menes, 39.
Mercer, General, 493.
Mercury, 141.
Meredith, William M., 533.
Meroveus, 187.
Merovingian Dynasty, end of, 188.
Merritt, General, 554.
Mesilla Valley, the, 534.
Mesopotamia, 5.
Messiah, the, 12, 621.
Messina, destruction of, 388.
Metellus, 73, 106.
Methuselah, 9.
Metz, 234, 400.
Mexicans, defeats of, 528-532, 566.
Mexican War, the, causes of, 516, 517.
Mexico, 232, 249, 452, 453, 517, 565-568.
Michael (Greek Emperor), 436.
Middle Ages, the, 147.
Mikado, the, 595.
Milan Decree, the, 220, 507.
Milanese, the, 217.
Milcho, 332.
Milesians, the, 329.
Miletus, 68.
Miltiades, 56.
Milton, John, 292.
Minerva, 142.
Minos, 143.
Minutius, defeat of, 90.
Mirabeau, 212.
Mississippi, 538.
Mithridates, 106.
Mizraim, 39.
Moab, land of, 16.
Moabites, worship of, 140.
Modocs, the, 548.
Moeris, Lake of, 45.
Moguls, the, 157.
Mohamed Tewfik, 609.
Mohammed II, 438, 440, 441.
Mohammedanism, 149, 164.
Moliere, 209.
Molino del Rey, 532.
Moloch, 140.
Molwitz, battle of, 397.
Monasteries, account of, 160.
Mongols, the, 587.
Monk, General, 290.
Monmouth C. H., battle of, 495.
Monmouth, Rebellion of, 292.
Monothelitism, 150.
Monroe, James, 514.
Mons Sacer, Plebeians retired to, 89.
Montcalm, General, 481, 482.
Monte Cassino, 377.
Montenegro, independence of, 409.
Monterey, 523, 524.
Montes, Senor, 574.
Montevideo, 577.
Montezuma, 452.
Montgomery, 539.
Montgomery, General Richard, 487; death of, 488.
Monticello, 514.
Montmorency, 201.
Montreal, 488, 563.
Montt, President, 574.
Moore, Thomas, 361.
Moors, 363, 366.
Moras, Prudente, 580.
More, Sir Thomas, 277.
Moreau, victory of, 217, 218, 221.
Moreno, Garcia, 572.
Morgan, General, 497.
Morgarten, battle of, 391, 428.
Morocco, 613, 614, 615.
Morris, Robert, 500.
Mortimer, 263.
Morton, Levi P., 550.
Mosaic Law, the, 623.
Moscow, retreat from, 221.
Moses, 4, 5, 13, 16.
Mountain, the, 215.
Mount Maurice, Henry of, 338.
Mount Moriah, 28.
Mount Sion, 28.
Mukden, 602, 603.
Mummius (Consul), 73, 104.
Munda, battle of, 114.
Munster, forces of, 334.
Murat, 220.
Murfreesboro, battle of, 542.
Murray, Earl of, Regent, 325.
Muses, the, 144.
Mussulmans, conquests of, 437.
Mycale, naval engagement off, 59.
Myers, quoted, 37.

Mysteries, the Eleusinian, 48.
Mystic River, the, 470.

Nabopolassar, 33.
Nadir Shah, 585, 586.
Naples, University of, 158, 180, 220.
Napoleon III, 227, 228, 231, 232, 385, 400.
Napoleon, Louis. See Napoleon III.
Nantes, Edict of, 205.
Narragansetts, the, 470.
Narses, 148, 373, 432, 433.
Narva, battle of, 418.
Naseby, battle of, 286.
Nashville, the, 553.
Nasr-ed-Din, 586.
National Assembly, the, 212.
National Bank (First), 504.
National Convention, the, 213.
Naumkeag. See Salem.
Navarino, battle of, 299, 439.
Navigation Laws, the, 551.
Navy (American), reconstruction of, 551; cruise of, 560.
Nebo, Mt., 16.
Nebraska, 547.
Nebuchadnezzar, 21, 33, 38.
Nebuchadnezzar, II, 33.
Necker, 210.
Needle-Gun, the, 400.
Nehemias, 23.
Nelson, victory of, 217, 219, 298.
Nero, 102, 118, 120, 626.
Nerva, 123, 627.
Nestor, 50.
Nestorian Heresy, the, 634.
Nestorius, 634.
Netherlands, the, 216, 424, 425.
Neville's Cross, battle of, 264.
New Amsterdam, 464, 465.
Newark, 492.
New Brunswick, 492.
New England, 283, 465.
New Forest, 252.
Newfoundland, 459, 562.
New France, 459.
New Grenada, 572.
New Hampshire, 468.
New Jersey, settlement of, 477.
Newman, Cardinal, 300, 305.
New Mexico, 534.
New Netherlands, 464.
New Orleans, 513, 541.
Newport, Captain Christopher, 460.
Newport News, 539.
New Sweden, 465, 476.
New York, 291, 491, 492.
New Zealand, 606.
Ney, Marshal, sentence of, 223.
Niagara, capture of, 481.
Nicaragua, 568.
Nice, 130, 170, 171, 436, 631, 632, 635.
Nicene Creed, the, 632.
Nicephorous Phocas, 437.
Nicholas II, accession of, 410.
Nicholas of Antioch, 627.
Nicias, peace influenced by, 62.
Nichols, Colonel, 465.
Niemen, the, 221.
Niger, 126.
Niger (British), the, 620.
Nihilists, the, 410.
Nile, the, 12, 13, 298.
Nimrod, 31.
Nineveh, 31, 33.
Ninus, 31.
Ninus the Younger, 33.
Ninyas, 32.
Noah, 6, 7.
Nod, land of, 6.
Nodzu, General, 602.
Nogi, General, 602.
Nola, battle of, 102.
Non-Intercourse Act, the, 485, 507.
Nordenskjö, 420.
Norfolk, burning of, 489.
Normandy, conquest of, 192.
Normans, France invaded by, 190.
North Australia, 606.
North Carolina, 477, 538.
North Dakota, 550.
North, Lord, 484.
Northmen, the, discoveries of, 445.
North Point, battle of, 512.
Northumberland, Duke of, 267, 278.
Northumbria, conquest of, 248.
Norway, 420, 421.
Novara, battle of, 380.
Nueces, the, 518.
Numa Pompilius, 84.
Numantia, siege of, 104.
Numerian, 128.
Numidia, 105, 612.
Numitor, 82.

Oates, Titus, 291.
Obelisks, the, 44, 45.
Obok, 620.
O'Brien, Donald, 339.
O'Connell, Daniel, 300, 357.
O'Connor, Arthur, 353.
O'Connor, Roderick, 338, 339.
Octavia, divorce of, 116.
Octavius, 41, 116.
O'Curry, 361.
Odoacer, 134, 373.
O'Donnell, Marshal, 613.
Oglethorpe, Gen. James, 478.
Ojeda, 451.
O'Kane, 342.
Oklahoma, 550, 560.
Oku, General, 602.
Ollave Fola, 331.
Olympic Games, 48, 76, 439.
Omar, conquests of, 163.
Omdurman, 610.
Omnibus Bill, the, 534.
Oxford, Earl of, 296.
Oxford Movement, the, 300.
Oxford, University of, 154.
O'Neill, Hugh, 342.
O'Neill, Shane, 341, 342.
"Open Door," the, 599.
Ophir, land of, 19.
Opimius (Consul), 105.
Opium War, the, 592.
Oracles, the, 145, 146.
Orange River Colony, 616, 617.
Orangemen, 351, 352.
Oratory (Greek), 77.
Orcan, 159.
Orders in Council, 219, 507.
Oribe, rebellion of, 578.
Orique, battle of, 413.
Orleans, Duke of, 212, 215.
Orleans, siege of, 196, 268.
Orloff, Count, 407.
O'Rourke, of Breffny, 339.

Oscar II, 420.
Osiris, 43, 139.
Osman Digna, 610.
Ostia, Port of, 84.
Ostorius, 244.
Ostracism, 80.
Ostracism, invoked against Aristides, 56.
Ostro-Goths, expulsion of, 373.
Othman, 164, 440.
Othman II, defeat of, 442.
Otho I, Emperor of the Romans, 390.
Otho II, 390.
Otho III, 390.
Otterburn, battle of, 266, 314.
Ottomans, the, 159.
Oude, 588.
Oudenarde, 207, 295.
Oudinot, General, 382.
Oulart Hill, battle of, 354.
Ovid, 118.
Oyama, Marshal, 602.

Padua, University of, 180.
Paganism, Julian's support of, 130.
Pakenham, General, 513.
Palacio, Andueza, 570.
Palæologus, Michael, 438.
Palestine, 27, 28, 177.
Palladius, 333.
Palma, Mons, 382.
Palmyra, 127.
Palo Alto, battle of, 520.
Pampeluna, 646.
Pan-American Exposition, 556.
Panama Canal Scandals, 236.
Panama Canal, the, 557, 558.
Panama Policy, opposition to, 558.
Panama, State of, 558.
Papal Chair, claimants for, 637.
Papal Guarantees, Law of, 386.
Papal Power, extent of, 376.
Papist (and equivalent terms), 349, note.
Paraguay, 458, 578.
Paris, 50, 224, 232, 235.
Paris, made seat of government, 187.
Paris, Matthew, 159.
Paris, Treaty of, 230, 302, 554, 555.
Paris, University of, 180.
Parker, Alton B., 558.
Parliament, Barebones, 289.
Parliament, expulsion of, 289.
Parliament, origin of, 261.
Parliament, power of, 483.
Parliament, the Long, 288.
Parmenio, 69.
Parnell, Thomas, 295.
Parnell, Charles Stewart, 358.
Paros, 56.
Paros, Chronicle of, 48.
Parr, Catharine, 278.
Parr, Thomas, 292.
Parthenon, 145.
Partholan, 329.
Pascal, 208.
Pasha, Osman, 409.
Pasha, Suleiman, 409.
Patmos, Isle of, 627.
Patricians, 83, 90.
Patriot War (1837), the, 564.
Paul, Emperor, 407.
Paulus Aemilius, 73.
Pausanias, 59, 60.
Pavia, siege of, 199, 433.
Peacock, the, 511.
"Peep-o'-Day Boys," the, 352.
Peixoto, 580.
Pekin, allies enter, 230.
Pelagian Heresy, 634.
Pelagio, Don, 363.
Pelagius, 634.
Pellegrini, 577.
Pelopidas, 65.
Peloponnesian War, cause of, 61, 62.
Pemberton, General, 544.
"Penal Laws," 350.
Peninsular War, cause of the, 220.
Penn, Admiral John, 475.
Penn, William, 475.
Penna, President, 580.
Pennsylvania, 475, 476.
Pensions, old-age, 308.
Pentecost, 623.
Pepin, appeal to, 150; gift of, 150.
Pepin, grant of, 374, 470.
Pepin, Italian conquests of, 189.
Pepin, Pope's appeal to, 188.
Pequods, the, 469.
Percy, family of, 266.
Pericles, rise of, 60, 61.
Perier, Casimir, 237.
Pernambuco, 579.
Perry, Commodore, 510, 528.
Perry, Commodore Matthew G., 535, 596.
Persia, 35, 36, 37, 38, 163, 408, 585, 586.
Persians, the, reverses of, 59, 60, 68; Eastern Empire assailed by, 148; religion, 164.
Persian Wars, cause of, 55; end of, 61.
Persepolis, 37, 70.
Perseus, defeat of, 103.
Pertinax, 126.
Peru, native dissensions; conquest of, 454; religion of people, 455, 458; 572, 573.
Peter (Abbot of Cluni), 157.
Peter the Hermit, 168.
Peter the Great, accession of, 405, 406.
Petition of Right, the, 284.
Petrow, 582.
Pevensey, 251.
Phalereus, Demetrius, 72.
Pharamond, 187.
Pharaoh, 11.
Pharaoh Necho, 40.
Pharisees, the, 622.
Pharnaces, 113.
Pharos, tower of, 40.
Pharsalia, battle of, 111.
Philadelphia, settlement of, 475.
Philip Augustus, 174, 192.
Philip II, 279, 364, 365, 413.
Philip III, 193, 365.
Philip IV, the Fair, 193.
Philip of Macedon, 66, 67.
Philip of Valois, 194.
Philippa, Queen, 264.
Philippi, 116, 625.
Philippicus, 150.
Philippines, loss of, 367, 451, 555, 561.
Philistines, 17, 18.
Philopoemen, death of, 72.

PHILOSOPHY, schools of, 74.
PHOCAS, character of, 149, 434.
PHOCIANS, the, 66.
PHOCION, 72.
PHOENICIANS, the, 38.
PHOTIUS, 152, 635.
PIACENZA, Council of, 169.
PICHEGRU, 218.
PICTS, the, 244, 245.
PIERCE, FRANKLIN, 535.
PIEROLA, 573.
PIERS, crime of, 342.
PIKE, GENERAL, death of, 510.
PISISTRATUS, 55.
PISO, 121.
PITCAIRN, MAJOR, 485.
PITT, WILLIAM, 298, 480.
PITTSBURG LANDING, 540, 541.
PIZARRO, 454.
PIZARRO, HERNANDO, 573.
PLANTATION OF ULSTER, the, 342.
PLASSEY, 588.
PLATAEA, battle of, 59.
PLATO, 75.
PLATT AMENDMENT, the, 555.
PLATTSBURG, battle of, 511, 512.
PLAUTUS, 139.
PLEBEIANS, 83, 88, 89, 90.
PLINY, 121.
PLINY THE YOUNGER, 123.
PLUTARCH, 123.
PLUTO, 143.
PLUTUS, 143.
PLYMOUTH COMPANY, the, 460.
PLYMOUTH, settlement of, 466.
POCAHONTAS, 461.
POICTIERS, battle of, 194, 264.
POINT ISABEL, 518.
POISSY, conference of, 201.
POLAND, insurrection in, 409, 415, 416.
POLES, the condition of, 229, 442.
POLK, JAMES K., 516.
POLO, MARCO, 591.
POLYSPERCHON, 72.
POLYTHEISM, extent of, 139.
POMPEII, 122.
POMPEY THE GREAT, 25, 106, 108-112.
PONDICHERRY, 588.
PONTEFRACT, castle of, 266.
PONTIFEX MAXIMUS, the, 137.
PONTIFICAL VOLUNTEERS, 384.
PONTUS, 106, 624.
POPE ADRIAN, alleged bull of, 336.
POPE, ALEXANDER, 295.
POPE CELESTINE, 333.
POPE CLEMENT III, 377.
POPE, GENERAL, 542.
POPE GREGORY VII, controversy with Henry IV, 375.
POPE GREGORY IX, 370.
POPE GREGORY XVI, 380.
POPE, Infallibility of, proclaimed, 385.
POPE LEO X, 641, 642, 643.
POPE LEO XIII, 385, 387, 651.
POPE MARTIN V, 639.
POPE NICHOLAS, 636.
POPE PAUL III, 644.
POPE PIUS VI, captivity of, 379.
POPE PIUS VII, 218, 649.
POPE PIUS IX, 232, 301, 380, 382, 650.
POPE PIUS X, 387, 651.
POPE STEPHEN, 374.
POPE SYLVESTER, 632.
POPE, the, removal to Avignon, 378.
POPE ZACHARY, 150.
POPES, the Temporal Power of, 189.
PORT ARTHUR, 598, 602.
PORT HUDSON, fall of, 545.
PORTO RICO, invasion of, 554, 555.
PORTSMOUTH, treaty of, 604.
PORSENNA, Rome besieged by, 88.
PORTUGAL, deposition of King of, 220, 413, 414.
PORTUGUESE, maritime activity, 413; 587, 591.
PORUS, defeat of, 70.
POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT, the, 557.
POTIPHAR, wife of, 11.
POWHATAN, 461.
PRADO, 572.
PRAETORS, the, 135.
PRAGUE, peace of, 400.
PRESBURG, the peace of, 219.
PRESBYTERIANS, 287.
PRESCOTT, COL., 487.
PRESIDENT, assaults upon the, 556.
PRESTON, CAPTAIN, 484.
PRESTON PANS, battle of, 297.
PRETORIA, 307.
PREVOST, SIR GEORGE, 510, 511.
PRIAM, 50.
PRINCETON, battle of, 493.
PRINTING, introduced into England, 272.
PRIOR, MATTHEW, 295.
PROCTOR, GENERAL, 510, 511.
PROMISED LAND, the, 16.
PROSERPINE, 143, 145.
PROTESTANT CHURCH, the, disestablished, 303.
PROTESTANTISM, 201, 203, 206.
PROTESTANTS, the, 644.
PROTESTANTS, sects among, 646, 647.
PROVIDENCE, settlement of, 469.
PRUSSIA, France invaded by, 216, 219, 394, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400.
PTOLEMAIS, capture of, 174.
PTOLEMY, 40, 71.
PTOLEMY, DIONYSIUS, 41.
PTOLEMY, EUERGETES, 41.
PTOLEMY LAGUS, 40.
PTOLEMY PHILADELPHUS, 40.
PTOLEMY, PHILOPATOR, 41.
PUBLILIUS, VOLERO, measure proposed by, 90.
PUEBLA, 530.
PULASKI, COUNT, 493, 495.
PULTOWA, battle of, 406, 415.
PUNIC FAITH, 98.
PUNIC WAR (First), the, 99.
PUNIC WAR (Second), cause of, 101.
PUNIC WAR (Second), end of, 103.
PUNIC WAR (Third), cause of, 103.
PUNJAB, 589.
PURITANISM, establishment of, 286.
PURITANS, character of the, 471.
PURITANS, fanaticism of, 344, 345.
PURITANS, the, 283.
PYDNA, battle of, 103.
PYGMALION, 38.
PYRAMIDS, the, 44, 217.
PYRRHO, 75.
PYRRHUS, Italy invaded by, 97.
PYTHAGORAS, 74.

QUADRIVIUM, 156.
QUAKERS, the, 475.
QUEBEC, 298, 478, 482, 562, 563.

Quebec Act, the, 563.
Queensland, 606.
Queenstown, battle of, 509.
Questors, the, 136.
Quindecemviri, 137.
Quintilian, 121.
Quintus Flaminius, 72.
Quirinus, 83.
Quitman, General, 524.
Quixote, Don, 369.

Racine, 209.
Radetski, Field-Marshal, victories of, 380.
Raglan, Lord, 301.
Rahl, Colonel, 493.
Raisin River, massacre at, 510.
Raisuli, 615.
Raleigh, Sir Walter, 282, 283, 459.
Ramillies, 207, 295.
Randolph, Edmund, 501, 503.
Randolph, Peyton, 485.
Ravaillac, 205.
Ravenna, exarchate of, 150.
Rawdon, Lord, 496.
Raymond of Toulouse, 170.
Re, worship of, 330.
Rebecca, 10.
Rebellion (of 1798), cause of, 353; end of, 355.
Récollet Friars, 563.
Reconstruction, difficulty of, 547.
Red Sea, the, 12, 13.
Reds, the, 578.
Reeder, Governor Andrew, 535.
Referendum, the, 429.
Reformation, the, 392, 566, 645.
Reformers (English), persecution of, 280.
Regulus, 100.
Rehoboam, 20.
Reign of Terror, the, 215.
Remus, 82, 83.
Rennes, trial at, 238.
Repeal Association, the National, 357.
Repeal Movement, the, 303.
Republican Party, the, 547, 552.
Resaca de la Palma, battle of, 521, 522.
Revolution, American, 226, 486, 499, 563.
Revolution, French, 649.
Revolution (1848), the, 394.
Rezonville, battle of, 234.
Rhadamanthus, 143.
Rhea Sylvia, 82.
Rhode Island, 469, 496.
Rhodes, 38, 193, 442.
Rial, General, 511.
Ricci (S. J.), Father, 591.
Richard, Abbot of St. Viennes, 390.
Richard Coeur de Lion, 174, 175, 258; relations to Philip Augustus, 259.
Richard II, 265, 266.
Richard III, 272.
Richelieu, Cardinal, 206.
Richmond, fall of, 546.
Riel's Rebellion, 564.
Riksdag, the, 421.
Rio Grande, the, 518.
Ripon, Marquis of, 300.
Rizzio, murder of, 323.
Roanoke Island, 459, 460.
Robert of Geneva, 638.
Robert of Normandy, 170, 235.
Roberts, General Lord, 586.
Robespierre, 215, 216.
Robinson, Governor, 536.
Robinson, John, 466.
Rochambeau, Count de, 496.
Rochelle, 206.
Rockingham, Lord, 483.
Rocroy, 206.
Rojestvenski, Admiral, 603.
Rolfe, John, 461.
Romagna, the, 383.
Roman Empire, 117, 126, 130, 132.
Roman Empire, the Holy, end of, 219.
Roman Empire (Western), condition of, 134.
Romans, literature among the, 105.
Romans, massacre of, 106.
Rome, 82, 83, 87, 88, 89, 90, 94, 95, 96, 99, 100, 101, 103-108, 110, 113, 122, 133, 134, 135, 148, 200, 239, 380-385, 392, 555, 624, 637.
Romulus, 82.
Romulus Augustulus, 134.
Roosevelt, Theodore, 555, 556, 558, 604.
Root, Elihu, 581.
Rosas, President, 576.
Rosecrans, General W. S., 542.
Roses, War of the, 269, 272.
Rosny, Baron de, 205.
Ross, battle of, 354.
Ross, General, 512.
Rossi, Count, 381.
Roumania, independence of, 409.
Roumelia, Eastern, 409.
Rousseau, Premier Waldeck, 210, 238, 648.
Rubicon, the, 110.
Rudolph, Duke of Suabia, 377.
Runnymede, 261.
Rupert, Prince, defeat of, 285.
Ruskin, John, 309.
Russell, Lord, 292.
Russians, the, 218, 220, 229, 237, 405-408, 410, 411, 603, 604.
Russo-Japanese War, beginning of, 410.
Russo-Japanese War, results of, 604.
Russo-Turkish War, the, 395, 409.
Rye-House Plot, the, 292.

Saarbrück, battle of, 233.
Sabbath, Jewish observance of, 24.
Sabines, rape of the, 83, 84.
Sabinus, 118.
Sackett's Harbor, attack on, 510.
Sacred War, the, 66.
Sadducees, 622.
Sadi-Carnot, M. F., 236.
Sadowa, battle of, 394, 400.
Saffavean Dynasty, 585.
Sagasta, Premier, 367.
Saguntum, siege of, 101.
St. Alban, 630.
St. Albans, battle of, 269.
St. Ambrose, 132, 633.
St. Angelus, 630.
St. Anselm, 161, 638.
St. Athanasius, 131, 633.
St. Augustine, 156, 245, 634.

St. Bartholomew Massacre, 202, 203.
St. Basil the Great, 633.
St. Benedict, 160.
St. Bernard, 157, 638.
St. Bonaventure, 159, 638.
St. Bruno, 155.
St. Caesarius, 148.
St. Clair, 494, 503.
St. Clement, 628.
St. Columbkille, 161.
St. Cyril, 633.
St. Dominic, 638.
St. Dunstan, 155, 248, 249.
St. Francis de Sales, 647.
St. Francis of Assisium, 638.
St. Francis Xavier, 596, 646.
St. Gregory Nazianzen, 633.
St. Gregory of Tours, 149.
St. Gregory the Great, 148.
St. Helena, 223.
St. Ignatius (of Antioch), 628.
St. Ignatius (of Loyola), 646.
St. James, 26, 623.
St. Jerome, 633.
St. John, banishment of, 627.
St. John Chrysostum, 633.
St. John Climacus, 149.
St. Just, monastery of, 364.
St. Justin (the Martyr), 124.
St. Lawrence O'Toole, 638.
St. Louis, 192.
St. Patrick, 332, 333.
St. Paul, 120, 623.
St. Peter, 26, 120, 622, 627.
St. Polycarp, 125, 628.
St. Quintin, 630.
St. Ruth, 347.
St. Simeon, 628.
St. Stephen, 623.
St. Thomas of Canterbury, shrine of, 277.
St. Vincent de Paul, 647.
Saladin, 173.
Salamanca, battle of, 298.
Salamanca, University of, 158.
Salamis, 59.
Salem, 468.
Salerno, 377.
Salic Law, 366.
Salisbury, Marquis of, 306.
Saltillo, 524, 525.
Sam, Tiresias Augustin Simon, 582.
Samaria, 624.
Samaritans, 21.
Samnites, Rome wars against, 96.
Samoset, 467.
Samuel the Prophet, 17.
San Francisco School Board, 560.
Sanhedrim, council of the, 626.
San Jacinto, battle of, 518.
San Juan, 536, 554.
San Luis Potosi, 525.
San Marino, 375.
San Martin, 574.
San Salvador, 568.
San Stefano, Treaty of, 409.
Santa Anna, 518, 525, 529, 566.
Santa Cruz, 572.
Santa Cruz, Father, 606.
Santana, General Pedro, 582.
Santiago, 575.
Santo Domingo de Loriano, mission of, 577.
Santo Domingo (see Hayti and Santo Domingo), 449.
Sao Vicente, 579.
Sapor, Romans defeated by, 127.
Saracens, the, 33, 161, 164, 166, 179, 188, 362, 363, 435, 437.
Sarah, 10.
Sardanapalus, 32.
Sardinia, 38, 229, 231, 380.
Sardis, 68.
Sarmiento, 576.
Sarpedon, 50.
Sarsfield, General Patrick, 347, 349, 350.
Satolli, Archbishop, 551.
Saturn, Feasts of, 138, 139.
Saul, 17, 18.
Savannah, capture of, 478, 495, 545.
Savior, the, 6.
Saxe, Marshal, victory of, 297.
Saxons, the, 148, 245.
Saxony, Elector of, 642.
Scaevola, Mutius, 88.
Scandinavia, 424, 645.
Schleswig, 399, 423.
Schley, Commodore, victory of, 554.
School Question (in Canada), 565.
Schuyler, General, 487.
Science, progress of, 309.
Scipio (Africanus), 102, 104.
Scipio (Asiaticus), 103.
Scota, 330.
Scotia, 330. See Ireland.
Scotland, 262, 263, 288, 295, 296, 311, 313, 315, 322, 323.
Scott, General Winfield, 511, 528, 529, 531, 532.
Scythians, 36.
Sebastian, King, 613.
Sebastopol, 229, 230, 301.
Secession, acts of, 538.
Sedan, French army surrenders at, 232, 234.
Sedition Law, 506.
Sejanus, 118, 119.
Seleucus, 71.
Semiramis, 32.
Sempronius, 101.
Senate, the Roman, 83, 107, 135, 189.
Sennacherib, 33.
Sens, 206.
Separation, the Law of, 239.
Sepoys, mutiny of, 302, 589.
Septuagint, the, 41.
Serfdom, abolished in Russia, 409.
Servia, independence of, 409.
Servius Tullius, 85.
Sesostris, 39.
Seth, 6.
Seven Days' Fight, the, 542.
Severus, Alexander, 126.
Severus, Septimus, 126, 244, 628.
Seymour, Horatio, 547.
Seymour, Jane, 297.
Sèze, De, 213.
Shafter, General, 554.
Shakespeare, William, 282.
Shalmaneser, 33.
Shannon, Governor, 535.
Shannon, victory of the, 511.
Sha River, battles on, 602.
Sheares Brothers, the, 354.
Shem, 8, 9, 31.
Shepherd Kings, the, 39.

Sherr Ali Khan, 586.
Sheridan, Richard Brinsley, 361.
Sherman, General, in Georgia, 545.
Sherman, James S., 561.
Sherman, Roger, 490.
Shiel, Richard L., 357.
Shiites, the, 164.
Shimonoseki, treaty of, 593.
Shogun, the, 595.
Siam, 605.
Sibylline Books, the, 137.
Sicilian Expedition, 62.
Sicilies, the Two, 384.
Sicily, 38, 99, 100.
Sicyon, 48.
Sidney, Algernon, 292.
Sidon, 38.
Siedlice, 412.
Sigismund I, 415.
Sigismund, John, 396.
Simeon, 11, 12.
Simnel, Lambert, 273.
Simonides, 58.
Sinai, 14, 15.
Sirens, the, 144.
Sitting Bull, 548.
Skobeleff, General, 409.
Slavery, 517, 533.
Sloat, Commodore, 528.
Smalkald League, the, 644.
Smerdis, 36.
Smith, Captain John, 460, 461.
Smolensk, battle of, 221.
Smyrna, 125.
Sobieski, John, 415, 442.
Social War, the, 106.
Socialism, 401.
Socialists (Swiss) opposed to military force, 430.
Socrates, 63, 64, 74.
Sodom, 9.
Solferino, battle of, 231, 394.
Solemn League and Covenant, the, 485.
Solomon, 19, 20, 28, 38.
Solon, constitution of, 54.
Solyman the Magnificent, 442.
Somerset, Earl of, 283.
Soudan, the, 609.
South Africa, federation for, 307.
South American Colonies (Spanish), independence of, 457, 458.
South Australia, 606.
South Carolina, 477, 538.
South Dakota, 550.
Southey, Robert, 309.
South Sea Scheme, the, 296.
South, the, 556.
Spain, 38, 104, 133, 150, 220, 362, 364-368, 554, 583.
Spalding, Archbishop, 642.
Spanish-American War, the, 553.
Sparta, 50, 53, 54, 62, 63.
Spartacus, insurrection under, 108.
Spartan Speech, 52.
Speedwell, the, 466.
Spenser, Edmund, 282.
Spurs, battle of the, 274.
Stamp Act, the, 483.
Standish, Miles, 467.
Stanislaus Augustus, 415.
Stanley, 617.
Stanley, H. M., 305.
Stanley, Sir Edward, 319.
Stark, General John, 494.
"Starving Time," the, 462.
States-General, convocation of, 211.
Stauracius, 436.
Stephen, King, 254.
Stephens, John, 303.
Stephenson, 309.
Sterling, Lord, 491.
Stevenson, Adlai, 550.
Stilicho, victory of, 132.
Stockton, Commodore, 528.
Stockholm, peace of, 422.
Stoessel, General, 603.
Stolypin, Premier, 412.
Stony Point, capture of, 495.
Storbini, 380.
Strabo, 45.
Strafford, Earl of, impeachment, 285.
Strassburg, University of, 402.
Stricker, General, 512.
Strike, the Anthracite, 556.
Strikes, 552.
Strongbow, 337, 339.
Stuart, Arabella, 283.
Stuart, Charles Edward, victories of, 297.
Stuart, Mary, 281, 320, 321, 322, 324-327.
Stuarts, arbitrary principles of, 291.
Stuyvesant, Peter, 465, 476.
Sucre, General, 573.
Sudermania, Duke of, crowned, 419.
Suetonius, 244.
Suez Canal, the, 237.
Suffetes, 98.
Suffolk, Duke of, 279.
Suffrage, Woman, 607.
Sullivan, General, 491.
Sullivan's Island, 489.
Sultans, the, 154.
Sunnites, the, 164.
Surajah Dowlah, 588.
Surat, 588.
Surrey, Earl of, 275, 319, 496.
Suwarrow, General, 217, 416.
Sweden, defeat of, 406, 417, 418, 420.
Swedes, the, 464, 476, 477.
Sweyn, invasion of, 250.
Swift, Jonathan, 361.
Swiss, 391, 428.
Switzerland, 216, 428-430.
Sylla, 106, 107, 108.
Syracuse, 99, 100, 102.
Syria, conquest of, 442, 609, 624.
Syrians, worship of, 140.

Tabernacle, the, 15.
Tacitus, 139.
Taft, William H., 561.
Taillebourg, battle of, 192.
Taiping Rebellion, the, 592.
Talavera, battle of, 298.
Tallyrand, 217.
Tamasp, 585.
Tamerlane, 440, 585, 586.
Tammuz, 140.
Tanaquil, 85.
Tara, 331.
Tara, Psalter of, 332.
Tarentines, 96.
Tariff, the, 549, 550, 552, 553, 561.
Tarleton, Colonel, 497.
Tarpeian Rock, the, 96.

Tarquin, 85, 88, 89.
Tarsus, 116.
Tartars, the, in Russia, 405.
Tartarus, 146, 405.
Tasmania, 606.
Tatsu Maru Affair, the, 594.
Taunton, 292.
Taylor, General, 518, 520, 521, 522, 525, 526, 527, 533, 534.
Tecumseh, 511.
Tehuantepec, 535.
Telegraph, the, 309.
Tel-el-Kebir, battle of, 304, 609.
Telemaque, 582.
Tell, William, legend of, 391; 428.
Temperance Movement, the, 560.
Temporal Power, disappearance of, 232.
Temples, names of, 145.
Tenchebray, battle of, 253.
Tennessee, 538.
Tennyson, Lord Alfred, 305.
Ten Thousand, retreat of the, 64.
Ternay, Admiral de, 496.
Terra del Fuego, 576.
Tertullian, 146.
Testament, Old, 29.
Tetuan, 613.
Tetzel, Father John, 642.
Teutonic Knights, 186.
Tewkesbury, battle of, 271.
Texas, 518, 534, 538.
Thackeray, Wm. M., 309.
Thales, 76.
Thapsus, battle of, 113.
Thare, 9.
Theban Legion, the, 630.
Thebes, 45, 48, 64, 65.
The Hague, 614.
The Hague, conference at, 410; peace conferences at, 426, 567.
Themistocles, 56, 59, 60.
Theodoric, 133, 373.
Theodosius, 131.
Theodosius the Great, 632.
Theophilus, 152.
Thermopylae, 58.
Theseus, 48.
Thessalians, the, 66.
Thessalonica, massacre in, 132, 625.
Thiers, 235.
Thirty Tyrants, the, 63.
Thornton, Captain, 519.
Thrace, Goths settle in, 131.
Thrasybulus, 63.
Thrasymene Lake, 101.
Tiberius, 117, 118, 119, 173, 433.
Ticonderoga, 487.
Ticinus, Romans defeated at, 101.
Tien Tsin, 592.
Tiglathpileser, 33.
Tigré, 386.
Tigris, 5, 31.
Tilden, Samuel J., 548.
Tilsit, treaty of, 219, 398.
Timur. See Tamerlane.
Tisiphone, 143.
Titus, 26, 121, 122.
Toga, the, 137.
Togo, Vice-Admiral, 601.
Togoland, 618, 619.
Tone, Theobald Wolfe, 353, 355.
Tonquin, 605.
Topeka, 536.
Tories, the, 291.
Torquemada, Cardinal, 370.
Totila, defeat of, 432.
Toul, Council of, 153.
Toulon, siege of, 217.
Tournaments, 184.
Tournay, capture of, 274.
Towton, battle of, 270.
Trafalgar (Cape), battle of, 219, 298.
Trajan, achievements of, 123, 628.
Transportation Act, 484.
Transvaal, the, 306, 616, 617.
Trebonian, 432.
Trent, Council of, 644, 645.
Trenton, 492, 493.
Tribes, the Ten, revolt of, 20.
Tribune, office of, created, 89, 136.
Triple Alliance, the, 385.
Tripoli, war with, 506, 612.
Trist, Nicholas, 531.
Triumvirate (First), the, 109.
Triumvirate (Second), the, 115.
Trivium, 156.
Trojan War, the, 49.
Trophonius, oracles of, 145.
Troy, 50.
Tryon, General, 493.
Tsin Dynasty, 590.
Tuaregs, the, 613.
Tudor, Henry, 272.
Tullia, 85.
Tullus Hostilius, 84.
Tunica, the, 137.
Tunis, capture of, 392, 612.
Turenne, 207.
Turgot, 210.
Turkey, 408, 409, 442, 443.
Turks, the, 164, 168, 179, 405, 406, 415, 438, 439, 440, 443.
Tutbury Castle, 326.
Tyler, Wat, 265.
Tyndarus, 49.
Tyre, 23, 38.
Tyrians, crucifixion of, 69.
Twiggs, General, 524.

Uganda, 620.
Ulm, battle of, 218.
Ulster, confiscation of, 342.
Ulysses, 50.
Union, Act of, 355.
Union, the Evangelical, 393.
United Colonies of New England, 470, 471.
United Irish League, the, 359.
United Irishmen, the, 351, 352.
United Provinces, the, 425.
United States, commissioners of, 210.
United States, the, France enters into treaty with, 495, 499, 504, 505, 510, 514, 533, 555.
Urban II, interest in Crusade, 169.
Urban III, death of, 173.
Uruguay, 458, 557, 558, 559.
Utah, 534, 552.
Utrecht, Treaty of, 295, 207.

Valadolid, 450.
Valens, 131.
Valentinian, 131.
Valentinian III, peace purchased by, 133.
Valerian, capture of, 127, 629.

VALERIAN LAW, 88.
VALERIUS, 86.
VALOIS LINE, end of, 198.
VALPARAISO, 575.
VAN BUREN, MARTIN, 515.
VANCOUVER, rioting in, 307.
VANDALS, the, 134.
VAN RENSSELAER, GENERAL, 509; defeat of, 510.
VAN TROMP, ADMIRAL, 288.
VARRO, 101.
VATICAN, General Council of the, 384.
VAUBAN, 207.
VEGA, GENERAL, 522.
VEGA, LOPE DE, 369.
VEIENTES, the, 84.
VENEZUELA CONTROVERSY, the, 306, 552, 569, 570.
VENICE, 374.
VENUS, 139, 142.
VERA CRUZ, 452, 528.
VERCELLI, battle of, 380.
VERGNIAUD, 215.
VERONA, Council of, 370.
VERRAZANO, GIOVANNI, 459.
VERSAILLES, 208, 400, 499.
VESPASIAN, 121, 122.
VESPUCIUS, AMERICUS, 451.
VESTA, 142.
VESUVIUS, eruption of, 122, 388.
VIBORG, 411.
VICKSBURG, surrender of, 545.
VICTOR EMMANUEL, 380, 383, 384, 385.
VICTOR EMMANUEL III, 386.
VICTORIA, PRESIDENT, 565.
VICTORIA, QUEEN, 299, 359.
VIENNA, 158, 193, 220, 222, 379, 442.
VILLAFRANCA, peace of, 231, 394.
VINCENT, GENERAL, 510.
VINEGAR HILL, 354.
VIRGIL, 118, 139.
VIRGINIA, 459, 460, 462, 463, 464, 538.
VIRGINS, the Vestal, 137.
VIRGINIUS, 92.
VISIGOTHS, the, 148.
VITELLIUS, 121.
VITTORIA, battle of, 298.
VLADIVOSTOK, 598.
VOLSCI, the, 84, 90.
VOLTAIRE, 210, 648.
VULCAN, 142.

WAKEFIELD, battle of, 269.
WALES, conquest of, 262.
WALL, COLONEL, 343.
WALLACE, SIR WILLIAM, 262, 312.
WALLER, EDMUND, 292.
WALPOLE, SIR ROBERT, 297.
WALSINGHAM, SIR FRANCIS, 281.
WAMPANOAGS, the, 467.
WANDIWASH, 588.
WARBECK, PERKIN, 273.
WAR OF 1812, causes of the, 509.
WARREN, ADMIRAL, 355.
WARREN, MAJOR-GENERAL, 487.
WARSAW, capture of, 416.
WARWICK, the Earl of, 270, 271.
WASHINGTON, capture of, 512.
WASHINGTON, Fort, 492.
WASHINGTON, GEORGE, 479; surrender of, 480; 487, 493, 498, 500, 501, 503, 504, 505.
WASP, the, 510.
WATERLOO, battle of, 222, 298, 379, 398.
WAYNE, GENERAL ANTHONY, 495, 503.
WEBSTER-ASHBURTON TREATY, 516.
WEBSTER, DANIEL, 534, 535.
WEISSENBURG, battle of, 233.
WELLESLEY ARTHUR, 489. (See Wellington.)
WELLINGTON, victory of, 222, 298.
WESLEY, REV. JOHN, 478.
WESSEX, 245.
WEST AUSTRALIA, 606.
WESTPHALIA, 219, 392.
WETHERSFIELD, 469.
WEXFORD, capture of, 338, 343, 354.
WEYLER, GENERAL, 553.
WHIGS, the, 291, 517.
WHITE, REV. ANDREW, S. J., 474.
WHITE PLAINS, 492.
WHITES, the, 578.
WICKLIFFE, JOHN, 638, 639.
WILLIAM I (Prussia), 399.
WILLIAM II, 253.
WILLIAM III (Prince of Orange), 293, 294, 295, 346.
WILLIAM IV, accession of, 299.
WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, France invaded by, 191, 251, 252, 253.
WILKINSON, GENERAL, defeat of, 510.
WILLIAMS, ROGER, 469.
WILLIAMSBURG, 541.
WILSON, JAMES, 501.
WIMPFFEN, GENERAL, 234.
WINCHESTER, GENERAL, 510.
WINDER, GENERAL, 510, 512.
WINDHORST, DR., 401.
WINDSOR, Castle of, 265, 469.
WINGFIELD, EDWARD MARIA, 460.
WINTHROP, JOHN, 468.
WISEMAN, CARDINAL, 301.
WISE MEN, the Seven, 76.
WITCHCRAFT, the Salem, 473.
WITTENBERG, 392, 642, 643.
WOLFE, GENERAL, 297, 481, 482.
WOLSELEY, SIR GARNET, 304.
WOLSEY, CARDINAL, 275, 276.
WOOSTER, GENERAL, 493.
WORCESTER, battle of, 288.
WORDSWORTH, WILLIAM, 309.
WORMS, Diet of, 644.
WÖRTH, battle of, 233.
WORTH, GENERAL, 524, 530, 532.
WYOMING, 550.

XANTHIPPUS, 100.
XAVIER, ST. FRANCIS, 646.
XENOPHON, 35, 64.
XERXES, 22, 36, 57, 59.

YALU RIVER, battle of the, 602.
"YELLOW WAR," the, 592.
YEMEN, conquest of, 615.
YORK, DUKE OF, 265, 269, 291, 465.
YORKTOWN, 498, 541.
YOUNG IRELANDERS, the, 303.
YOUNG TURKS, the, 444.

ZAMA, battle of, 102.
ZARA, 175.
ZELA, battle of, 113.
ZEMISCES, JOHN, accession of, 437, 438.
ZENO, 75.
ZENOBIA, capture of, 127.
ZOLA, EMILE, 238.
ZOSIMUS, 132.
ZUINGLIUS, 645.
ZULUS, the, 304, 616.

1915 - Immortals.

Mark Hopkins. educator; born Stockbridge Mass. 1802, died in Williams town 1877.

Francis Parkman historian born Baton 1823, Boston 1893.

Elias Howe, inventor; born Spencer Mass. 1819, died Brooklyn N. Y. 1867.

Joseph Henry, scientist investigator in electric magnetic induction and first secretary of the Smithsonain institution, born Albany N. Y. 1791, died in Washington D. C. 1878.

Charlotte Cushman, actress, born, Boston 1816; died Boston 1876

Rufus Choate, advocate and orator; born Essex Mass. 1799 died Halifax 1859.

Daniel Boone pioneer and hunter founder of the Boones boro as a defense against the Indians, born Berks Pa. 1735 died on a Mo. farm 1820.

1900.

George Washington.
Abraham Lincoln.
Daniel Webster.
Benjiman Franklin.
U. S. Grant.
John Marshall.
Thomas Jefferson.

R. W. Emerson
H. W. Longfellow.
Robt Fulton
Washington Irving
Jonothan E. Ewards
S. F. B. Morse.
D. G. Farragut.
Henery Clay.
Nathial Hawthorne
Gerge Peabody
R. E. Lee.
Peter Cooper
Eli Whitney
J. J. Audubon
Horace Mann
H. W. Beecher